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ABSTRACT

A series of five monographs comprises this document. The overall concern is with elementary school guidance and each monograph which is complete within itself deals with a specific aspect of this topic: (1) Models and Directions; (2) Role of the Superintendent and School Board; (3) Role of the Principal; (4) Role of the Teacher; (5) Role of the Secondary School Counselor. They are designed to assist all personnel of local schools in establishing organized guidance programs at the elementary school level. (SK)

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Strategies

For Implementation of Guidance in the Elementary School

Models and Direction

Robert L. Frank

William A. Matthes

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FOREWORD

In 1969 the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction published Elementary Guidance In Iowa - A Guide. Its concluding sentence was "The writers hope this handbook will be one of many publications contributing to organized programs of guidance services for all youth in Iowa's elementary schools." With this in mind and in response to many requests, this series of five monographs has been developed. They include: Models and Direction, Role of the Superintendent and School Board, Role of the Principal, Role of the Teacher, and Role of the Secondary School Counselor. Each is complete in itself. In this way, they are planned to assist all personnel of local schools in establishing organized guidance programs at the elementary school level.

A special thanks of appreciation is given to the authors, Dr. Robert L. Frank, Associate Professor of Education and Psychology, Counselor Education, University of Northern Iowa, and Dr. William A. Matthes, Assistant Professor of Education, Division of Counselor Education, The University of Iowa.

GUIDANCE SERVICES SECTION

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Elementary School Guidance Defined. 4

Models For Elementary School Guidance 6

Remedial Model 8
Preventative Model 12
Developmental Model. 14

The Counselor as an Intervention Agent. 24

Program Descriptions. 34

References. 35

INDEX OF APPENDIX

APPENDIX A: Elementary Guidance in Cedar Falls Community Schools

APPENDIX B: Linn-Mar Community Schools Elementary Guidance and Counseling Program

APPENDIX C: The Counselor in the Marshalltown Elementary School

APPENDIX D: Pottawattamie County School System Elementary Guidance Coordination

MODELS AND DIRECTION

Elementary school guidance has developed in response to society's demands that the school provide "total" development of the child. Society no longer accepts the view that the school can or should be concerned only with the acquisition of knowledge. The development of elementary school guidance programs represents a concentrated attempt to meet the needs of the individual.

Several factors have contributed to the development of guidance services and the placement of counselors in elementary schools.

I. The recognition that in early years guidance efforts are often more effective because it leads to earlier identification of developing problems; habits are less firmly established; and parents are more likely to work closer with schools.

II. The acceptance of the educational implications of what has been learned about child development.

At any particular life period people are confronted with certain developmental tasks--skills, attitudes and understandings--that they need to achieve and are expected to achieve prior to moving on to subsequent tasks. This is basically the developmental task concept advanced by Havighurst (1952). The developmental tasks identified by Havighurst (1952) which have particular significance to children in the elementary school include:

1. learning physical skills necessary for ordinary games.
2. building wholesome attitudes toward oneself as a growing organism.
3. learning to get along with age-mates.
4. learning an appropriate sex role.
5. developing fundamental skills in reading, writing, and calculating.
6. developing concepts necessary for everyday living.
7. developing conscience, morality and a scale of values.
8. developing attitudes toward social groups and institutions.

Teachers frequently become so well acquainted with abnormal behavior in their classroom that they have difficulty determining normal growth changes within the classroom. At times individual differences are ignored or lost in meeting the needs of individual students. Many students are requested to do things for which they are not prepared.

Bloom (1964) evaluated eight longitudinal studies in growth and development and reached the conclusion that early influences have a disportionate influence on the child. As these characteristics appear to be either nonreversible or at least only partially reversible, the earlier we can act to influence desired changes the more successful we can hope to be. Attitudes toward school achievement are established by the third grade.

Kagan and Moss (1962) report much the same conclusions. The most dramatic and consistent findings were that many of the behaviors exhibited by the child during the period of 6-10 years of age, and a few during the period of age 3-6, were moderately good predictors of theoretically related behavior during early adulthood. This study indicated that the child who was achieving well early in school will generally continue to achieve well. There is need to provide early encouragement for the academic achiever, and to identify those who are not meeting the academic tasks of this stage of life.

The research of Piaget (Phillips, 1969) shows that during preadolescence the child begins to develop a concept of self, distinguishable from the outer world. This is the time when the clarification of feelings, concepts,

attitudes, goals, and understanding of self would be most significant. The development of conscience, morality, and values begins early in the elementary school. The child learns that rules are necessary and develops what Piaget calls the morality of cooperation. The movement through these stages frequently provides the child with a sharp contrast between actual performance, his values, and his ideal self.

III. The recognition of self direction and self-control as an important element of individual growth.

From an early age, a child acquires ideas and attitudes about himself. The way a child feels about himself dictates the way he acts and feels about life. When a child feels he is wanted, acceptable, able, and worthy, he is likely to behave as though he were. If a child sees himself as unliked, unwanted, unaccepted, unable, and unworthy, he is likely to behave in negative terms.

As the child grows in self-understanding, he expands this insight to understanding others. He learns to respect rights and differences of others because he wants to be accepted in his own way. When a child feels good about himself, he feels good about others, about home, and about school.

IV. An increased awareness of the impact of home life and parental attitudes in the determination of the child's school experiences.

The parents and the school must be partners in facilitating the growth of each child. Only as a team can both work to their maximum.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE DEFINED

Elementary school guidance can be defined as a philosophy, a service and a process. As a philosophy, guidance is concerned with the recognition of the individual's worth and dignity. Teachers, counselors, and administrators who operate from a guidance philosophy, view education as child centered: children have the potential to acquire and utilize the techniques of problem solving which will make them self-actualizing.

The service concept of guidance represents the organizational structure within the school to meet the child's needs. Unlike the secondary school organization which has typically been organized into five services (appraisal, information, placement, follow-up, and counseling), the elementary guidance organization has been less structured and views organization structure only in the area of information and child study. The area of information attempts to create an awareness of human behavior; the individual's personal skills; and his environment.

The service of child study has particular significance to the elementary school. The counselor becomes involved in environmental studies in an effort to understand each child in his environment. To be an effective part of the guidance program, child study is not a static act or a static piece of data but a series of activities beginning at the child's earliest contact with school and continuing throughout his school years. Child study involves collecting, collating, conceptualizing, and utilizing data to meet the child's needs.

Guidance is a process in which the entire school "team" attempts to intervene in a positive manner into the lives of all the children. The school counselor through his efforts becomes an intervention agent who assists each child to discover and utilize his individualistic qualities. Of major importance are the relationships which each child develops. Activities which allow an individual to broaden his experiences in a safe non-judgmental manner are necessary for self-growth. The concept of the developing child becomes the process of guidance.

The goals of guidance services in the elementary schools have been agreed upon and accepted (Hill and Luckey, 1969; California Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services, 1967). Closer to home and indicative of the common objectives is the publication, Elementary Guidance in Iowa, of the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction (1969) which identifies the following objectives:

1. To develop within individuals an awareness and understanding of self.
2. To develop within individuals an acceptance of self.
3. To develop within individuals an understanding of others.
4. To develop within individuals an understanding of their environment.
5. To assist individuals in the decision-making process.
6. To develop within "significant others" an awareness, understanding and acceptance of pupils.

While there is common agreement as to the goals of guidance services, differences do exist in the method by which the school implements the program. The major variations are represented by the models discussed below.

MODELS FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Elementary school guidance may be crisis or remedial, preventative, developmental or a combination of these models. While the vast majority of theorists advocate the developmental or preventative approach, many schools begin or allow their programs to operate at the crisis level.

Shaw (1966) has developed a general model for guidance services which represent a three dimensional attempt to clarify the guidance model (See Figure 1). The horizontal dimension represents the time at which guidance intervention takes place. The second dimension represents two basic techniques for achieving objectives--directly by working with students or indirectly by working with significant others in the learning environment. The third dimension represents the proportion of student population reached by a given technique. The paradigm indicates the more serious or crisis oriented the difficulty the fewer the students who will be able to avail themselves of the counselor's time. Level three contacts (as indicated by the paradigm) represent crisis orientation situations. Prevention aspects tend to be level two contacts and level one contacts tend to be developmental. Acceptance of any of the model's influence how many students you have exposure to, the manner in which you work, and the time of intervention.

Shaw makes a strong case for a clear delineation of the counselor role and function and feels the major problem school counselors have encountered is a reluctance to delineate the level at which they will and can function.

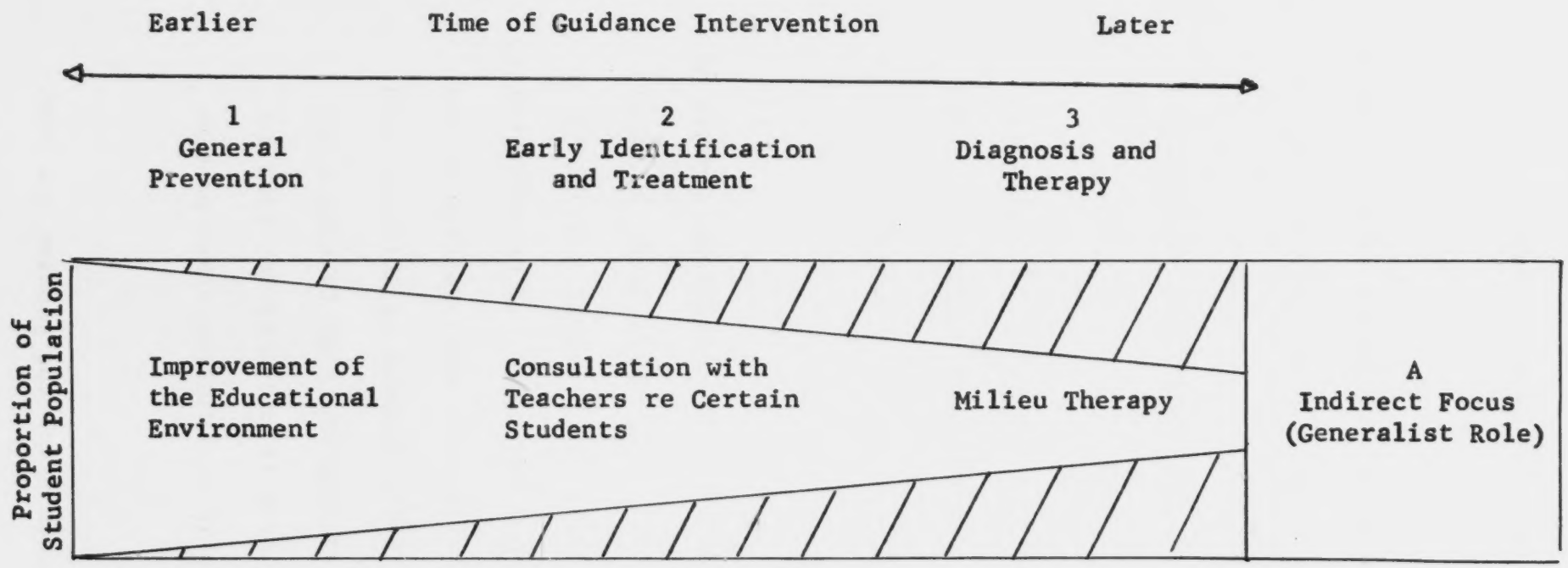

Fig. 1. A general model for guidance services. The horizontal dimension represents the time at which guidance intervention takes place. The two different rectangles represent two basic techniques for achieving objectives--directly through working with students or indirectly through working with significant adults in the learning environment. The proportion of the population which can be reached through a given technique initiated at a given time is indicated by the white areas. Cross-hatched areas represent the proportion of the population not reached by a given program.

(Shaw, 1969)

To provide service in each model can only lead to confusion among the staff regarding the counselor's role.

Each school must develop and implement a program of guidance services which best meets the needs of their children. However, the majority of programs can be classified as either remedial, preventative or developmental. Figure two represents a summation and a basis for comparison of the three major models.

Within each of the models, the roles of the personnel will be identified and discussed. Figure three represents a summation and a basis for comparison of the role of the counselor in each model.

REMEDIAL MODEL

The remedial model of guidance is concerned with correcting some aspects of the maturation process which have gone astray. This model tends to focus on the more chronic, serious disabling problems which impair a minority of the student population. The elementary school counselor, if he works mainly with problem children, will not differ much from the usual pattern of the school psychologist. The pressure of increasing numbers of children with severe learning problems and/or behavior problems may tend to keep a program crisis oriented. Little or no opportunity is provided for problem solving techniques which will assist the child in handling other problem areas as they develop.

The counselor becomes an agent of intervention after the problem has been

Figure 2

SUMMATION AND COMPARISON OF MODELS OF
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE

Criteria	Remedial	Preventative	Developmental
I. Focus	Correction of the maturation process	Identification of and removal of blocks in the development of the child	-Growth process -"Building" -"Developing" -facilitation of the learning process
II. Population Served	"Problem children"	All children-focus on those who indicate high probability of more serious problems	All children
III. Intervention Point	After problem is identified	-Early identification -Inject process at critical points	Throughout the total educational program
IV. Process of Intervention	Relearning or unlearning	Diagnosis and treatment	Integrated with education

identified. He attempts to teach the child the appropriate behavior. This learning and unlearning process may have a preventative function in the long run. If a child can have help with a problem at some point of time, it is possible he can make adjustments on his own later.

School administrators have often suggested that in the beginning the counselors work world, of necessity, be dealing with crisis situations and would gradually shift to a broader, more developmental focus as the school becomes ready. The problem is whether a person can be brought in, allow the crisis image to develop, and then shift to a broader concept of the job.

Roles within the Remedial Model

I. Counselor

A. The counselor works directly with students.

The counselor meets either individually or in small groups with students who have severe and/or chronic problems, in a counseling session.

B. The counselor is a consultant to teachers with regard to individual students.

Generally these students show chronic and/or serious problems. Simple classroom manipulation by the teacher probably has had only limited, if any, impact on the child. He uses specialized tests, interviewing and other instruments which utilize his broad background in personality dynamics, child development. He must be able to translate his speciality into the language of the teacher and administrator.

C. Counselor works with parents.

He is in contact with parents when communication between the teacher and parents needs additional support or when referral of this nature is made.

D. The counselor works with various referral agencies.

Because of his understanding of behavioral problems, it is often the highly skilled counselor who must initiate and follow through on agency referrals.

E. Counselor conducted in-service education.

While teachers and administrators also perform this service, programs designed by the counselor tend to be structured in the area of behavior dynamics. Focus tends to be in relating to specific children with which the teacher is dealing. In crisis oriented programs little time is devoted to this role because of the pressure of the immediate setting.

II. The teacher is viewed as the educational leader within his classroom. His prime responsibility is to impart cognitive learning to his students.

The teacher also has the responsibility to understand and interpret to children, parents and other teachers the guidance program and its functions. Guidance services are viewed as problem oriented and contacts with the counselor tend to center on specific problems identified by the teacher as related to the child's success within the classroom.

III. The administrator becomes involved in the guidance system as a referral agent. Contacts with home, specialized personnel and outside referral agents usually are processed by the administrator or with his delegated approval. From his leadership role he tends to view guidance as a specialized service to the school. Instruction is considered outside the realm of guidance and the administrator does little to advance guidance as an integral part of the school's program.

IV. Specialized personnel become elements of the elementary school guidance program as their specialized skills are needed. The counselor or the administrator coordinates the service with each of the specialized personnel.

The major specialized personnel used tend to be the school psychologist and the school social worker (visiting teacher).

A. School psychologist

The school psychologist is regarded in most school settings as a clinician who works with individual children. The position has been a dynamic one with role identity undergoing a continual evolution. In the beginning most school psychologists were employed as "testers" with little feedback to the school or the individual. Today school psychologists picture themselves as diagnosticians. This function is accomplished by a) evaluation using standardized

and individualized techniques; b) short term counseling; c) application of the diagnosis; d) communication with parents; and e) liaison with other specialized personnel.

The school psychologist tends to operate from a central office base or a large organizational structure such as a county, area or statewide basis.

B. School social worker

The social worker's function is to be a liaison between the school, the home and the community. He is specifically concerned about children who cannot meet the demands of learning. The method of helping involves the use of the social casework analysis. He contributes to the study and adjustment of pupil problems through school and community resources. The major focus is on an out-of-school context as related to in-school context. Parents and the home setting become the direction of the social worker.

THE PREVENTATIVE MODEL

The preventative and developmental models tend to overlap to some degree, and many writers tend to consider them as identical. However, there does appear to be a significant distinction between them.

The preventative model is concerned with the identification and removal of blocks in the environment which could potentially handicap the development of the child. Focus is placed on problems or crisis situations which may occur: one of seeking to prevent a negative experience from occurring. Emphasis in the preventative model is on early identification and special treatment of those individuals identified who according to the criteria have a high probability of developing a more serious problem. For example; psychological testing to diagnosis of special needs of children; diagnosis of underachievers; early identification and treatment of learning disorders. Children identified can receive assistance either in an individual counseling

or in special groups either as group counseling or special classroom conditions.

Roles within the Preventative Model

I. The counselor.

The counselor who operates from a philosophical base of prevention finds he operates in a day-by-day pragmatic rationale. His contact with the children and teachers is often a crisis response to a situation which has developed within the educational setting. On the other hand, the counselor recognizes the importance of preventing patterns of behavior which become obvious to him as he works with teachers and students. "If only I can foresee this behavior and present information or skills to the child or his teacher maybe we could prevent these problems from occurring." The phrase, "An ounce of prevention..." is an illustration of this concept.

A. The counselor works directly with the child.

The counselor communicates either individually or in small groups with students who seek assistance or are referred by teachers, parents or administrators. If the situation represents a serious problem, extended counseling sessions may be held or a referral made to other specialists such as school psychologists. Counseling centers on the problems of the individual and either adjustment or coping behavior becomes the desired goal.

B. The counselor is a consultant to teachers with regard to individual students.

The counselor through various child study techniques, including classroom observation directed to specific children, collaborates with the classroom teacher to meet the needs of the child. The focus is also placed on identification of potential handicaps. Techniques may be developed with the classroom teacher to discuss and seek alternatives to potential problem areas with children.

C. The counselor works with parents.

The counselor is a contact with parents when communication between the teacher and parents needs additional support or when a particular type of referral is made. Parent education groups can become a major focus of parent contact. Topics of these sessions tend to be developed or selected by parents and focus on concerns they have regarding their child and his education.

D. The counselor works with various referral agencies.

The counselor in this role functions similar to the crisis oriented counselor.

E. The counselor conducts in-service education.

Although this function is shared with the entire staff, programs designed by the counselor tend to be structured in the area of behavior dynamics. Focus tends to be on relating to difficulties which the teacher is experiencing in the classroom.

Programs designed to provide understanding and interpretation of child study data, and skill in handling certain behavior characteristics are stressed.

II. The Teacher.

In addition to the teacher's guidance responsibilities, identified under the remedial model, the teacher becomes a contributing member of the guidance team. He becomes involved in conferences with parents, or other school personnel to meet the needs of individuals or the total classroom. He also becomes more directly involved in the process of child study.

III. The Administrator.

The administrator becomes involved in the development of the guidance program through effective leadership. He maintains a close relationship with the counselor, recognizes him as his expert in the field and utilizes and enhances the unique characteristics of the counselor as well as the other members of his staff. Guidance is viewed as an important segment of the educational program. The administrator is responsible for seeing that all teachers in the school are aware of the services of the counselor and are aware of the proper administrative procedures to maximally use the guidance services.

IV. Specialized personnel.

As specialized personnel tend to be primarily referral services they function in much the same manner as described under the remedial model.

THE DEVELOPMENTAL MODEL

The developmental model of guidance is geared to the growth processes of children. It is concerned with "building" skills, attitudes, and habits

which will facilitate the developing child to becoming a fully functioning person. It assumes change and views the counselor as the change agent who provides direction to the anticipated change.

The developmental model attempts to identify potential problems in their early stages, to deal with causes rather than symptoms, and to prevent serious problems in later stages of development. It represents a movement away from the remediation or treatment centered approaches, although both are included. This approach seeks to be integrative and geared to the needs and dreams as well as the realities of our world. It is founded on the principles of child development. The primary purpose of a developmental guidance program is to provide individual students with the tools and techniques to become self-directing and self-correcting.

Again in the realm of Shaw's paradigm (1966) the developmental model may provide services on either an indirect or a direct focus. In an indirect manner, the developmental model concentrates on improving the environment. Major concentration is placed on assisting the teacher to provide a secure atmosphere in which each child can progress at their maximum learning rate. With a direct focus; the developmental model seeks to present mental health activities to all students, so they can develop and select alternative responses to their behavior.

The immediate objective of this model is to individualize the school's educational program as much as possible in order to increase its effectiveness for each child while preserving the uniqueness of his own personality.

Havighurst's (1952) concept of "developmental task" has grea: significance to this model. This concept is defined as:

> "A task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of the individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks."

Recognition that elementary school guidance is an integral part of the school necessitates a recognition that education exists on the affective (or emotional), the social and the physiological as well as cognitive learning skill domain. Instruction needs to be based on educational needs. What we need is an assessment of the child in terms of his functioning in the social system.

Developmental guidance services are aware of pupil needs such as: developing social relationships, belonging, and identifying; developing independence, making choices, and accepting responsibility for them; growing to understand the nature of work and how it operates in his environment; learning to realistically appraise his attitudes and interest; and learning to plan for his life. The guidance program is directed toward providing each child a setting in which he can profit the most from his school experiences in order to rise to the maximum level of his potential. The developmental model views elementary school guidance as an integral part of the total educational program and has as its primary concern facilitation of the learning process. The immediate goal of such a program is to individualize the school's educational program in order to increase its effectiveness of each child while preserving the uniqueness of his own personality.

Roles within the Developmental Model

The developmental model implies a total school commitment to maximizing the "fully functioning" individual. Guidance is viewed as a team approach which can operate effectively when each member of the school staff is able to provide the types of school experiences which meet the needs of pupils. It is the responsibility of the entire school staff to know the pupils and to find ways of developing cooperatively a school program and environment which will meet the needs of all. The team concept does not imply that a group of specialists must function as one body and deal as a group with each child that is referred. Instead there needs to be a close spirit of rapport and understanding of each other's services so each may complement the other.

I. The counselor

A. The counselor works directly with children.

The activities of the elementary school counselor assumes guidance and counseling services are needed by all boys and girls. The services will be available to assist during critical developmental periods and at integrative choice points. The activities are all aimed at bringing about an awareness, understanding, acceptance, and improvement of one's self. This necessitates the process of encounter and confrontation with oneself to be a continuing one.

No matter what level of counseling is discussed, the purpose of such a program is to facilitate growth and development through a meaningful relationship. Unlike some psychological models, the developmental model sees the child's growth as an ordered and patterned process of change, and moving in directions that are desirable for both the individual and society. It also assumes counseling can bring about these positive changes and modifications that will carry over into later life.

Counseling is a process of communication through which a child is able to develop and give expression to his values, attitudes, and

feelings. It is a relationship between counselor and child which is not only directed toward self-understanding and self-acceptance, but also provides an avenue to help children understand and cope with their environment.

Through counseling, both individual and in groups, activities can be planned so that children can learn who they are and what they are capable of becoming. The child can learn to view himself realistically and to develop a positive attitude toward himself and the world around him. Through groups, children learn to understand their reactions to other people and the reactions and attitudes of other people toward them.

The counselor needs to understand the range of coping behaviors available to a client within a given role and to help him master those which are most effective for him. The activities must have the breadth to allow the "trying out" of new approaches. This includes giving him the right to fail, but not be a failure. The learning of appropriate coping behavior becomes an active learning process. The counselor must always insure that each individual has an opportunity to master the tasks that equip him with the coping behaviors necessary for handling those roles and relationships that are involved in his next stage of development.

The goals and aims of the elementary school guidance program should be commensurated with, and an extension of the goals and aims of the particular school system itself. The activities of the counselor balance the responsibilities of his counselees, the school, the society, and other interested persons and agencies.

Out of the awareness and understanding of himself and his environment the child can better identify those influences that will best facilitate the kind of future that is goal-directed for him.

The counselor from the developmental model helps elementary school children strive for control over those aspects of the environment the child can manipulate and for control over those aspects of his environment he cannot. There needs to be activities within the guidance program which bring about changes in perceptions of the environment.

Some environmental manipulation may be necessary in the form of working much more closely with teachers, parents, and other significant individuals in the child's environment. This implies the counselor will be taking a more direct role in the relationship than he would with older children. More of the responsibility for decision-making and self-direction is shared by the counselor.

Another implication rising from the developmental model is the matter of emphasis. In the past, many school counselors have practiced crisis-oriented counseling as a primary goal within their respective schools. The emphasis within crisis-oriented counseling is "problem-solving". The developmental counselor must not focus on problem-solving or even a preventative orientation as his primary goal. The activities must concentrate on individual needs--beginning where the child is going as far as possible with him.

The goals of all activities are the formation of an integrated structure of values and ideals, together with coping behaviors adequate to implement these values in a reality-oriented world. The developmental counselor concerns himself with activities that bring about positive changes on all levels of development. In each case, a non-threatening relationship must be present to allow for self-exploration on each level. Like other counseling models, developmental counseling implies change. This assumes the counselor and the activities of his program must remain flexible and adaptable to rapid change processes.

B. The counselor is a consultant to teachers in regard to individual students.

Through the consultation process the counselor and teacher utilizing a mutual interrelationship seek to have an impact on the child's life. Focus is placed on a facilitating goal, one which will free the child to grow at the most appropriate rate for him. The counselor's expertise in the area of child study, classroom environment, and human relations can be brought to the situation.

C. The counselor provides in-service education for teachers and administrators.

Developmental guidance based on the principle of "growth" seeks to provide experiences which will sensitize teachers and administrators to the needs of children for affection, security and a feeling of self-worth. By his commitment to the total development of the child the counselor can continually refocus the day-by-day emphasis on the cognitive domain. In effect the counselor may become the school spokesman for the affective domain.

The school counselor also has become increasingly involved in improving the interpersonal and intrapersonnel relationship of the staff. Through teacher consultation and on a limited teacher initiated basis, counseling, the teacher's ability to relate to the child's needs can be enhanced. The focus of such meetings is sensitization to self in relation to others. The objective is not to "treat" or "cure" teachers of anything but to produce more effective teachers.

D. The school counselor is a consultant to curriculum development.

While the counselor is not a highly trained specialist in curriculum as it relates to content or methods he brings a background of child study and development and the learning process to the deliberations. From this frame of reference the counselor can reflect on the suitability of content, materials, and methods which may be suitable to the child's need structure and the learning process. The counselor may become involved in the development of resource material which can be used by the classroom teacher, particularly in the affective, social or psychological domains.

E. The Counselor is a resource agent to parents.

In addition to contacts with parents of children who are experiencing difficulty, the counselor through a broad program of parent education can communicate principles of mental health and developmental growth. Community resources can be utilized to assist this parent education program.

II. The Teacher

The teacher serves as a member of the team which seeks to meet the unique needs of children within the school. The classroom teacher holds a key guidance role in understanding and dealing with child growth and behavior. The most important contribution a teacher can make to guidance is that of being a good teacher. We need to recognize the classroom teacher as a specialist in his own right and in his own specialty. Without question, he is the most important member of the educational process. The only justification of the administrative and personnel functions of education is to facilitate the instructional program of the teaching staff.

The classroom teacher who is carrying out her responsibilities to children effectively will, in addition to providing the fundamentals of instructional materials:

1. provide for the unique needs of all children
2. develop skill in gathering and using data needed to determine readiness for learning
3. recognize that all children need guidance in resolving problems of adjustment in the normal process of growing up
4. recognize and refer for help those children with problems of a more serious nature
5. cooperate with the principal and specialists in developing and evaluating the organized program of guidance in the school. (Meeks, 1967)

John Seeley's remarks (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1969) have particular relevance to the teacher's role

in meeting the needs of children: "Skills cannot be painted on the child; however good the parent, and delicate the brush. Skills, both good and bad, are the by-products of life itself. The truly significant skills must emerge from free interaction with teachers who themselves are persons, teachers who are free to relate and let the child relate and therefore 'born' the precious rewards of interrelating."

III. The Administrator

The administrator is also a member of the guidance team and as such provides leadership to the total guidance program. The administrator in providing educational leadership to the guidance program is cognizant of the individual needs of children within the educational setting. Team work does not occur by itself. It is created by everyone in the school sharing a concern for the successful academic, social, and emotional adjustment of students. A critical criterion in determining success or failure of a team is the communication within the group. The administrator is and must be the facilitator within the educational setting to ensure this communication.

IV. Specialized personnel

Specialized personnel are important members of the team concept. Each renders service in cooperation with the school staff. While the teacher has the major educational responsibility for each pupil; all other school personnel seek to facilitate the work of the teacher.

The school psychologist, the school social worker, as well as the school counselor all share common aspects and each provides unique or distinctive emphasis in his work. To utilize their strength most adequately the specialists must coordinate and understand each other's services to complement the others.

Figure 3

COUNSELOR'S RELATIONSHIPS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Counselor's Relationships with	Remedial	Preventative	Developmental
I. Students	-severe or chronic problem focus -individual or group counseling	-operates on a pragmatic basis -recognizes developmental and preventative needs but has crisis orientation -individual or group counseling -some classroom group guidance	-facilitates growth and development -process of communication to develop and give expression to values, attitudes and feelings -individual and group counseling -classroom guidance -focus on individual needs
II. Teachers in regard to individual students	-severe or chronic problem focus -assist teachers to cope with student's behavior	-focus on child study techniques -classroom observation -identification of potential handicaps -classroom guidance	-mutual interrelationship -facilitating growth is goal -child study focus -classroom observation -classroom guidance
III. Parents	-involved with parents of "problem" children -provides support to teacher and parents -assists referral process	-parent education -provides support to teacher and parents -assists referral process	-a resource agent to parents -parent education -provides support to teachers and parents -assists referral process
IV. Referral Agencies	-initiates and follows through on referral	-initiates and follows through on referral	-initiates and follows through on referral

Figure 3 (cont.)

Counselor's Relationships with	Remedial	Preventative	Developmental
V. Instructional Program			
A. Conducts In-Service Education	-focus on difficulties which teachers are experiencing in the classroom	-shared function with total staff -child study focus -behavior characteristics stressed	-focus on "sensitizing" total staff to individual needs of students -interpersonal and intra-personal relationships of staff -keeps focus on "total" development of child -schools spokemen for affective domain
B. Consultant to Curriculum Development	Usually no involvement		-brings background of child study and the learning process to curriculum development -develops resource material

THE COUNSELOR AS AN INTERVENTION AGENT

The elementary school counselor is an intervention agent whose training has been directed toward assisting all children in their desire to grow and develop in a healthy, normal way. The counselor's skills are ones which help him to understand the meaning, the purpose, and goal of their behavior. These skills allow him to communicate to children that here is an adult who is really concerned, one who has time to listen and assist them in talking about their feelings and to also help them in planning for changes they wish to make; an adult who will accept them, an adult who cares.

Combs and Soper (1963) define the characteristics of effective counselors:

1. perceives from an internal rather than an external frame of reference.
2. sees in terms of people rather than things.
3. sees people as able rather than unable.
4. see people as friendly rather than unfriendly.
5. see people as worthy rather than unworthy.
6. see themselves as identified with people rather than apart from people
7. able to cope with own problems.
8. not afraid to reveal his true self.
9. tries to free people rather than control them.
10. is altruistic rather than narcissistic.
11. is concerned with larger rather than smaller meanings.

They conclude: "Apparently what makes an effective professional worker is a question not of what methods he uses, but of how well he has learned to use his unique self as an instrument for working with other people". (p. 226)

It is important that the counselor have a basic philosophy and approach so he can communicate clearly his aims to children, teachers, parents, and

administration. But, no two counselors in the same setting, let alone in different settings, operate in an identical manner. The counselor's role is frequently identified and interpreted by the image he creates within the school. What a counselor will do is as much the result of his response to situational needs as to his philosophical base. It is his flexibility which provides the model for both the children and teachers within the school.

The counselor functions in a manner which is consistent with his personal strengths and experiences; his training and the philosophical base of the educational institution which employs him. He should be a facilitator, not a therapist. He utilizes two major techniques to fulfill his role: counseling and consultation.

Counseling: Counseling is a process of communication through which a student is able to develop and give expression to his values, attitudes, and feelings. It is a relationship between counselor and student which is not only directed toward self-understanding and self-acceptance, but also provides an avenue to help students understand and cope with their environment.

Through counseling, the student is given the opportunity to examine and frequently to experience the alternatives available to him and to acquire skills in decision making which will be of service throughout his lifetime. This relationship precludes and negates the counselor-counselee interaction from being problem centered and oriented.

The elementary school counselor is concerned primarily with normal children and prevention of serious school adjustment problems. His counseling is generally short-term in nature, and he seeks to aid teachers in early discovery of problems, endeavoring to help them improve the classroom learning atmosphere.

Studies by McDougall and Reitan (1963) and Smith (1964) each found over 90% of their respondents felt counseling with pupils should occupy much of the time of the guidance specialist. This counseling involves personal, social, academic, and educational problems.

In a study Mendelson (1968) identified the functions successful practicing elementary school counselors were actually performing in their school setting. The following tasks were identified:

1. Doing individual counseling with children who are referred by their parents or teachers.

2. Consulting with teachers concerning pupils with whom they want assistance.

3. Arranging parent conferences to discuss family situations which might be affecting the child's school adjustment.

4. Conducting group counseling with students having learning and/or social problems.

5. Conducting interviews with pupils, teachers, administrators, and parents as a means of collecting information pertinent to making a valid assessment of a child's developmental history.

6. Doing individual counseling with children who seek help on their own.

7. Conducting parent conferences to discuss the academic progress of their children.

8. Conferring with teachers on problems of motivating students in learning.

9. Identifying and counseling under-achieving pupils.

There is a tendency for people to view any aspect of counseling as problem or crisis centered and to justify consultation on the developmental level. Frequently, however, consultation is also crisis centered with focus on the problems or the prevention of problems. Counseling and consultation can be crisis-centered, preventative or developmental and both can be utilized with children, teachers, or parents. The focus of the counselor becomes the determining factor.

Consultation: To be of assistance to students, it becomes necessary to consult with significant others. Frequently students are not in control of many of the aspects of their environment. Through consultation a counselor assists teachers, principals, and parents in meeting the needs of students.

The goal of counseling and consultation is to assist in the development of each student. They differ only in the means of reaching this goal. Counseling involves direct interaction between a student and a counselor while consulting involves a relationship between a counselor and significant others who have direct contact with the student.

The consultation process is a mutual interrelationship in which the parties listen and ask for, information, orientation, opinions, suggestions, and direction as it relates to an individual student.

The counselor brings his special areas of expertise to assist the significant individuals in the student's life to have their maximum impact. As a

consultant the counselor assists teachers, administrators and parents in providing for the needs of the child.

Maes (1966) defines consultation as operating at two levels. Milieu-oriented and Child-oriented consultation. Milieu-oriented consultation is a relationship in which the consultation focuses upon some aspect of a child's environment. It may be the home, the school, or the neighborhood. Child-oriented consultation is a relationship in which the focus is upon a child's behavior. Emphasis is upon understanding the causes underlying the behavior through the application of theoretical propositions concerning personality, learning and child development. Evidence suggest then an increased understanding of child behavior can influence adult attitudes and behavior toward children.

1. Counselor may consult with teachers, administrators, or parents concerning the behavior of an individual child. Focus may shift to Milieu-oriented consultation.

2. The counselor may consult with teachers, administrators, or parents with the focus being upon an individual child's behavior but the primary purpose being the enhancement of the consultee's understanding of child behavior and not just the resolution of the problem presented by the particular child being studied.

While this delineation may be helpful in clarifying these terms, its usefulness in practice is questionable because of the interrelationship of these functions.

Most frequent requests from teachers for consultation center around behavior problems that fall either on the aggressive or withdrawn extreme of behavior--the counselor in a consulting role is forced to handle these requests if he is to get assistance from teachers.

In a study by McGehearty and Pierce Jones (1965), teachers were asked to respond to the question, "In what ways did you feel that th: consultation services was most helpful to you?" Their responses were as follows:

1. Identifying problems in children.
2. Understanding problems in children.
3. Confirmation of teacher's judgments.
4. More knowledge pertaining to human behavior and emotions.

Under no circumstance, either in a counseling or consulting role, should the counselor devote so much time to teacher referrals, to the problem children, that he loses all perspective. This is the major criticism made by elementary school principals about the functioning of the secondary school counselors. "They're always putting out small fires and have no time to fight the blaze." A certain portion of the day must be set aside for preventative and truly developmental activities.

As a consultant, to teachers the counselor has major responsibility in two areas: classroom learning and human relations.

In the area of classroom environment, the counselor assists the teacher to develop an awareness of the needs of students within the classroom; to identify these specific needs and provide opportunities for maximum individual development; and by assisting the classroom teacher in becoming more aware of the classroom environment he has created.

One of the major responsibilities of the teacher is to help pupils acquire facts, attitudes, and skills so as to function as a creative and productive

individual. The elementary school teacher deals primarily with the subject matter content and basic skill development. Focus is on the presentation and mastery of information as measured by a cognitive response. The focus is also on the development of group success. The teacher by necessity devotes attention to the total group and, when forced to choose between meeting the needs of the individual or the total group, the individual must be sacrificed. The counselor on the other hand, places his prime responsibility on the needs of the individual.

Research in the classroom environment has indicated the importance of the teacher-pupil relationship. Ralph Ojemann's (1961) work at the Prevention Psychiatry Center at the University of Iowa has developed mental health activities which stress the role of the classroom teacher.

Dinkmeyer and Dreikurs (1963) discuss at length the deterrents to encouragement in learning. Concepts such as pessimism, confusion, social climate and insincerity (not providing the proper "feeling tone") are cited. Moustakas (1966) concurs with these views and calls for the authentic relationship. Dinkmeyer and Dreikurs (1963) suggest methods to make learning a rewarding experience. Holt's book (1964), finds the teacher-pupil relationship the major force in motivating students.

A second major role of the classroom teacher is to recognize that she may be an important element in either the breakdown or the development of a healthy classroom atmosphere. They need to understand that they teach what they <u>are</u>, not just what they <u>say</u>. Furthermore, the teacher must

understand that anything they do or say could significantly change a student's attitude about himself for better or for worse. They must understand that students, like anyone else behave in terms of what seems to be true, which means that many times learning goes on, not according to what the facts are, but according to how they are perceived. Teachers need to be willing not just to teach subject matter, but to deal with what the subject matter means to different students. In the truest sense of the word, they must be as willing to deal with the interpretation of a subject as they are to deal with the information about it. Finally, they need to understand that they are not likely to get results simply by telling someone he is worthy. Rather, they imply it through trust and the establishment of an atmosphere of mutual respect. One good way to start is to take time to listen to what the students have to say and to use their ideas when possible.

A teacher's mental health is directly related to what goes on in the classroom. When the teacher relies largely on dominating techniques, conflicts are multiplied. When the classroom is student instead of teacher centered, spontaneity and social involvement is increased. Thus an important consultant role of the counselor may be to assist the teacher to acquire techniques to encourage teacher self understanding as one of the best ways to enhance better classroom atmosphere.

The third major role of the classroom teacher is concerned with the earliest possible identification of the pupil's intellectual, emotional, social, and physical characteristics; on the development of the pupils special talents, and on the diagnosis of learning difficulties that the child may have or be

developing. A recognition of these potential problems through the assistance of an elementary school counselor, may improve the classroom teacher's ability to teach.

The counselor can assist teachers to use the concepts of individual differences constructively. For example, most classroom instruction is based on the acquisition of facts and pieces of information. Teachers tend to seek specific answers although all research indicates boys tend to relate best when analytical skills are stressed. Thus tests which are tests of fact tend to handicap boys. Testing to be fair to boys should on a regular basis include tests based on concept of generalization skills. Another illustration; maximum learning occurs in situations where a proper amount of dissonance exists within the classroom to facilitate student motivation. Still another outcome may be a great deal more interaction between individual students and the teacher than can now be provided by the conventional classroom. At present, students receive genuinely personal attention only a small portion of the time.

The counselor consults with classroom teachers on the improvement of the interpersonal setting in the classroom including appropriate learning experiences in human relations. Counselors should have an understanding of the dynamics of human relations. Classroom visitation and even teaching is an appropriate function of the counselor. However, the counselor is not a teacher within the regular program of the school. The subject is the individual and his subject matter is human relations. No other individual in the school has this as his primary function.

As a consultant, the specialist assists teachers, administrators and parents in providing for the needs of the child. Some of his consulting functions could include:

1. Consulting with administrators in order to provide direct assistance to one another with reference to particular children.

2. Consulting with teachers, towards better understanding of children through cooperative planning of appropriate classroom experiences to meet their individual needs.

3. Consulting with an individual and/or small groups or parents concerning social, emotional and educational concerns experienced by their children.

4. Consulting with specialists within the school or community such as school psychologists, learning consultants, social workers, etc. in order to elicit their special help in meeting the various needs of children.

Elementary Guidance in Iowa

During the 1969-70 school year, (Forsyth, 1970), Iowa had "50 approved counselors working at the elementary school level in 25 school districts, four county offices; and one special project; a Title III ESEA Elementary Guidance project funded through the Office of the Black Hawk-Buchanan County Superintendent of Schools." There may be other individuals who are functioning as counselors at the elementary school level without the proper certification.

Part of the difficulty in implementing programs has been the lack of available approved elementary school counselors. "It would appear this would be improving somewhat beginning next year. There are four institutions in Iowa preparing elementary school counselors. They are: Drake University,

Iowa State University, The University of Iowa, and the University of Northern Iowa. There are approximately 220 individuals enrolled in elementary school counselor education programs in these four institutions. Of these 220, it would appear at this time approximately 60 will be eligible for elementary counselor approval by September of 1970." (Forsyth, 1970)

PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS

With the rapid development of programs of elementary school guidance within the State of Iowa, a description of some programs throughout the State may be of value to schools in determining the approach to implementing a program within their own school. These descriptions are cited to illustrate the diverse methods utilized to meet children's needs and are not intended to serve as models to be adapted in-toto, but adapted to fit local needs. The program descriptions as submitted by the local school personnel are contained in the Index of Appendix.

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APPENDIX A

ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE IN CEDAR FALLS COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

Cedar Falls school age youngsters not only look different outwardly they are also very different inwardly.

Children enter kindergarten with different levels of maturity, with individual strengths and weaknesses, with differing abilities to learn, and with differing expectations for their forthcoming school experiences. They come from everywhere in every way. Some come eagerly, some reluctantly, with positive expectations and with fear, with a richness of background and with cultural handicaps, with curiosity and with apathy, with skills and without skills. Some are emotionally starved---others are self-confident. Some are wealthy and some are economically deprived.

As soon as a child enters school he begins to form attitudes and opinions, that together, will eventually have some part in shaping his future in society. Elementary school guidance and counseling is a service designed to assist all children in making maximum use of their abilities for their own good and for that of society. Its emphasis is in the early identification of the pupil's intellectual, emotional, social, and physical characteristics; development of his talent; diagnosis of his learning disabilities, if any; and early use of available resources to meet his needs.

The guidance and counseling program is available to all children -- the gifted in intelligence, outstanding leaders, average students, and for those who might be having difficulty because of intellectual, social, physical, or emotional problems. It is an essential part of the educational program of the elementary school. Ideally, there should be a full time counselor in each elementary building as a member of its staff.

The Cedar Falls Community School was one of three schools in Iowa to take part in a two year pilot project in elementary guidance beginning in 1966. This program was provided through our State Department of Public Instruction and supported by federal funds in the National Defense Education Act. This project made it possible for our school district to initiate one of the first elementary guidance programs in Iowa. One of our experienced primary teachers, qualified in elementary guidance, was assigned to work full time in all our elementary schools as a primary school counselor. The acceptance and value of this program among our professional staff encouraged the board of education and administration to provide additional personnel to strengthen the guidance services at this level.

Please note the summary of data from our elementary guidance questionnaire that follows this article. We administered this survey approximately a year and one half after implementing our elementary guidance program to evaluate the acceptance and value of formal guidance services at this level. The data also indicates the role of the elementary counselor as viewed by the teachers and principals.

A year ago a second counselor was added to our elementary guidance staff and this past fall a third counselor was employed. At the present time we have one woman and two men counselors each assigned to three elementary buildings.

We definitely feel a need to add more staff at the elementary level; however, with the decline of Title V-A funds and general school financial limitations, we are not able to create counselor positions as rapidly as we would like. Cedar Falls has proven the value and acceptance of elementary guidance in our system and only time will determine how rapidly we can provide a counselor for each elementary attendance center in our district.

SUMMARY OF DATA FROM ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE QUESTIONNAIRE - MAY 1967

Responding group: Elementary personnel from the Cedar Falls elementary schools:

Eight Elementary Principals
Fifty-two Primary teachers
Twelve Fourth Grade teachers
Ten Fifth grade teachers
Five Sixth grade teachers

Total of Eighty-seven in the sample group responses.

1. Sixty-three per cent of the group indicated their brief experience with an elementary guidance worker was very helpful. Thirty-one per cent felt this to be of some help. Ninety-four per cent of the respondents were favorable of the elementary guidance worker.

2. Over three-fourths of the elementary personnel responding felt we need more elementary guidance personnel in our system. Only two people felt this was not necessary.

3. Over one-half indicated they could justify a counselor being assigned to their building approximately half time. One-fifth felt a full time person for their building was justified.

4. There seemed to be no significant differences as to what grade levels have the most need for a counselor.

5. Two-thirds of the respondents feel an elementary counselor needs elementary teaching experience. Thirty-one percent feel it depends on the person. Only two said no teaching experience is necessary.

6. The role of the counselor as viewed by this group is as follows -- from most important to least important.

1. Counselor for pupils
2. Consultant to staff
3. Visiting teacher - resource person
4. Coordinator of referrals
5. Tester

7. In adding specialized personnel to our staff at the elementary level the respondents ranked our systems' need as follows -- from most needed to least needed.

1. Counselor
2. Teacher aid
3. Librarian
4. Classroom art teacher
5. Educational consultant

(Twenty-six ranked counselor first, whereas seventeen ranked teacher aid first.)

8. The elementary personnel ranked the group they thought the counselor should work with and could be most effective. From most important to least important.

1. Pupils
2. Teachers
3. Parents
4. Administrators
5. Specialized Personnel

APPENDIX B

LINN-MAR COMMUNITY SCHOOLS ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM

Linn-Mar's elementary guidance program was initiated in the fall of 1967. Initially it served mainly the fourth, fifth, and sixth graders of the district. During the second year the role and function of the elementary counselor was delineated by the elementary administrators and the counselor and approved by the Board of Education. In this third year of development, it has seen the addition of a second counselor and the extension of more services to the primary age children. With the support of administrators and teachers it has not only flourished but expanded in profitable, developmental ways. Collaborative work with teachers has been well received and profited many youngsters. The outline which follows serves as an introduction to our program. We welcome visitors to see it in action.

Elementary Guidance and Counseling Program

The focus of the counselor is the individual student whether services are being offered to the student, his parents, or the faculty. How can we best enhance the social, emotional, and academic development of each child? The priorities of the counselor will adjust to meet the needs of the students.

I. Counseling

A. Individual sessions--most require 25 minutes but length varies, youngsters may refer themselves or be referred by their teacher or parent, content may concern academic progress, responsibility, self-discipline, independence, and peer and sibling relationships.

B. Group sessions--often youngsters can provide insights to each other, excellent environment for development of empathy and social relationships.

II. Collaboration

A. With teachers

1. Observation of individual students-help discover dynamics and appropriate methods for handling.
2. Observation of groups of students as above.
3. Discussion--allowing utilization of knowledge of children shared by counselor and teacher to prescribe and evaluate action, may pertain to individuals, groups, or situations.
4. Assistance with information gathering-sociometrics and application to classroom grouping, incomplete sentences, and effective conversation with youngsters.
5. Assistance in mental health activities. Focus will be developmental areas all youngsters are encountering. Many types of guidance materials are employed. (Bibliography of materials available.)
6. Guidance newsletter--stimulate our thinking about children and our relationships with them.
7. Small group faculty meetings--how to set limits appropriately, develop attitudes, reinforce desirable behaviors.

B. With parents

1. Conferences following psychological testing with psychologist.
2. Telephone contacts to evaluate mutual goals.
3. Conferences with teachers and parents.
4. Conferences with parents and counselor or principal.

III. Coordination - of school and community resources to meet the needs of individual students, discover unmet needs and interpret guidance services to the community.

A. Psychological services--many youngsters have had psychological testing, these reports are in their cumulative folders, referral forms are available, after testing conference with psychologist and teacher to prescribe program to implement findings.

B. If recommended by psychologist, contact with Mental Health Clinic or Family Service Agency and follow-up with these agencies.

C. Contact with parent groups, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, etc.

D. Testing Coordination

1. Intelligence testing--fourth grade in the fall and sixth grade in the spring. Meeting, discussing, administration, and scoring done in counseling office by secretary, results interpreted with teachers, use of information in planning for individuals and groups.
2. Iowa Test of Basic Skills--materials handled through this office for District, meeting on administration, interpreting to youngsters and parents amount of growth.
3. Upon occasion individual Slosson Intelligence Test or a Wide Range Achievement Test.
4. Utilization of information provided by reading consultant and the reading staff.

APPENDIX C

THE COUNSELOR IN THE MARSHALLTOWN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Introduction

The pupil personnel team is a group of professional school workers (teacher, principal, nurse, psychologist, consultant, counselor, etc.) interested in the welfare of children and each individual child. As a co-operative member of this team, the counselor works in a helping relationship as a resource person to provide services to students, teachers, parents, administrators, and other specialists within the school to meet the developmental needs of the children. The services that the counselor performs as part of the pupil personnel team are counseling with children; consulting with parents, teachers, and administrators; and co-ordinating the work of the student personnel team.

The counselor is responsible to the principal of the building in which he works and the Director of Guidance. The principal is responsible for and concerned about all activities within his building. The Director of Guidance is responsible for coordinating the in-service activities in guidance, and for providing leadership for the counselors. He coordinates the functions of counseling to insure a vertical articulation of the guidance function. Also he is concerned with forms, records, and the general procedures employed by individual counselors.

Objectives

In agreement with the primary objectives of education, the elementary guidance program proposes to help boys and girls grow to their maximum potential. More specific objectives are:

1. To provide counseling to students.
2. To emphasize the needs of all students.
3. To discover interests, abilities, strengths and weaknesses of students.
4. To better inform school personnel of individual pupil problems.
5. To emphasize the impact of school and classroom climate upon the growth of children.
6. To provide a communication liason between school and home and school and community agencies.
7. To implement referrals of students, through principal's knowledge, who need further professional help.

Functions

The counselor needs to be available to counsel with all children on a one to one and/or small group basis. Counseling helps children by giving them a chance to talk over their interests and concerns; cope with their developmental needs; develop an adequate, realistic self-concept; understand how to work and play with others; understand how well they have achieved in school in comparison to their ability to do school work; and develop growth toward self-direction in decision making.

Children in elementary school talk about a wide variety of problems. Some examples of some of the concerns of the students are:

1. "I'm poor."
2. "I can't learn to read."
3. "My teacher doesn't like me."
4. "My parents always fight."
5. "My new puppy was killed."
6. "My stomach hurts when I come to school."
7. "I don't have any friends."
8. "I'm afraid of my teacher."

As the counselor works in the school, the concerns will cover a miltiplicity of topics.

Through counseling a unique relationship is established with the assurance of confidentiality. The counselor must use his own judgment in carrying out his responsibility to child and school.

As a consultant, the counselor endeavors to provide useful and practical suggestions to help teachers, principals, and parents in providing for the needs of individual children. Also consulting with those concerned with the individual children helps the counselor gain a better understanding of the children. The counselor assists the teacher in trying to help parents understand child development and normal concerns children have; recognize their children's accomplishments in relation to their abilities; understand future educational and vocational opportunities; and understand the importance of parents and school working as a team. Through consultation with the counselor, teachers and the principal gain a better understanding of the needs of students and their normal concerns and problems; receive help in recognizing students who may need special help; help in studying the classes' social interaction and relationships; and assistance with referrals to school specialists and agencies outside the school and with the follow-up of the recommendations made by the specialists and agencies.

The counselors give school personnel and specialists outside of the school a person within the school setting who may implement the required services needed relative to help individual children. The counselor makes referrals, channels information to proper sources, and tries to see that special recommendations are followed.

The counselor tries to bring the efforts of all the participants in the educative process together and focuses them upon the needs of each individual child. He encourages, by working in a helping relationship, these persons to use the team work approach in meeting the needs of the child.

Below are some of the specific functions a counselor might perform if the counselor has a reasonable building and student ratio assignment (one building or five hundred students.) Counselors, because of their individual differences, emphasize certain phases of these functions. Also the counselors' tasks differ from school to school because of the differences of the school population and personnel.

1. Individual counseling
   - Referred by
     - Self or
     - Others (teachers, principals, parents, etc.)
   - Because of
     - Intra-personal concerns
     - Inter-personal concerns
     - Academic performance below expectation
2. Small group counseling
   Members have the opportunity to help each other explore problems interfering with their growth and learning and at the same time see that other boys and girls have problems.
3. Classroom guidance
   In co-operation with classroom teachers, mental health materials are presented and techniques are demonstrated.
4. Consult with teachers
   Exchange information for better understanding of an individual child or a group of children. Encourage an accepting school environment with possible suggestions for insuring such an environment.
5. Consult with administrators
   Plan, co-operate with, and keep individual building principal cognizant of and involved in the total guidance program. This should entail an exchange of information regarding case load, materials used, and school personnel involved.
6. Consult with parents
   Discuss the child, his needs, his concerns, and his development. Counselor may conduct conferences alone, with teachers, or with other school personnel.
7. Help implement required services of the pupil-personnel team
   - Services provided by
     - Teachers
     - Principals
     - Psychologist
     - Nurse
     - Speech therapist
     - Elementary consultant
       - By
         - Referring of children
         - Relating helpful information to members
         - Giving aid in carrying out specific recommendation
8. Observation
   Observe individual children in classroom, on playground, and in other school situations to better understand these children and the experiences children have in school.
9. Orientation
   - New students
   - New parents
   - Students to future school experiences
10. Provide information and data to Director of Guidance for co-ordination of guidance program.
11. Record pertinent information relative to individual children.
12. Interpret the elementary guidance program to the community and promote it in other communities.

13. Be aware of and make available latest literature, classroom materials, and research dealing with child development and elementary guidance programs.
14. Be liaison between school and community agencies.
    - Mental Health Center
    - Department of Social Welfare
    - Probation Office
    - Service clubs
    - Others
15. Parent guidance
    - In co-operation with principals and teachers, plan and/or conduct parent education programs.
16. Testing
    - Group testing program
      - Ordering
      - In-service training
        - Administering tests
        - Interpreting test results
      - Scoring
    - Individual appraisal
      - Student placement and understanding by utilizing reading inventories, group achievement tests, group intelligence tests, personality inventories and other techniques.

There are five counselors in the twelve elementary schools in Marshalltown. Mrs. Glenda Barton (MA - MU) was the first certified elementary counselor in the system in 1966-67. She had 11 schools and worked at developing the concepts of elementary school guidance.

Miss Ruth McQuigg (MA-UNI) was added to the elementary guidance staff the following year. The eleven schools were then divided between the two counselors.

Mrs. Josette Peterson (MA-UNI) was added to the staff the third year the program was in operation. Due to Federal Funds this counselor was able to be assigned to one school with an enrollment of 650 students.

Preceding the 1969-70 school year two additional certified elementary school counselors were hired. With the additional counselors, Mrs. Juanita Wharton (MA-ISU & SCS) and Miss Margaret Hillyard (MA-ISU), each counselor's load was reduced to two schools with approximately 600 students. There are two schools that have counselors only on a call basis. It is hoped that an additional staff member will handle the needs of the two buildings.

APPENDIX D

POTTAWATTAMIE COUNTY SCHOOL SYSTEM ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE COORDINATION

OUTLINE OF SERVICES PROVIDED

I. Counseling
   A. with children attending Pottawattamie County School System classes.
   B. with children throughout the county, on a referral basis, for demonstration purposes.
   C. with parents of school children.
   D. with families.

II. Consultation
   A. with teachers of Pottawattamie County School System classes.
   B. with teachers, counselors, and administrators throughout the county.
   C. with parents of school children.
   D. with significant others in the lives of school children.

III. Coordination
   A. testing program at county level.
   B. information processes.
      1. inservice programs.
      2. occupational, educational, and personal-social information for elementary teachers and pupils.
      3. group guidance activities.
      4. gathering, compiling, and developing materials for distribution.
      5. professional library.
      6. increasing professional competence.
   C. referral services.
      1. liaison between school and home.
      2. liaison between school and service.
      3. liaison between local school district officials and candidates for positions.
      4. cooperation with the Guidance Services Section, State Department of Public Instruction.
   D. evaluation processes.

The overall objective of elementary guidance coordination at the intermediate school district level in Pottawattamie County has been that of promoting elementary school guidance. Efforts are being directed toward enhancing the understanding of guidance services at the elementary school level, and toward creating a readiness for these services and an acceptance of the elementary school counselor as an integral part of the school staff throughout the county. Since no school counselors are employed by local school districts in our county for work at the elementary level, services have been extended primarily to elementary teachers and principals.

The addition of classes for the trainable mentally retarded to the services provided by the Pottawattamie County School System presented a new area of emphasis for the elementary guidance coordinator. These children have the

right to have guidance services provided for them, including access to a school counselor. The methods used in dealing with these children are somewhat different from methods used in dealing with normal children, but it is to be recognized that these children are, first of all, children, with all the needs, fears, ambitions, and aspirations that every child has; their handicapping condition is an added burden for them in seeking to meet their needs. It is a fact that children who suffer handicaps of any kind need counseling and other guidance services just as much, if not more, than normal children.

In promoting the guidance point of view in our county, and more importantly, in meeting the needs of the children we serve, we have included counseling and guidance services as an integral part of the curriculum in the classes we sponsor. The team approach is emphasized; we feel that in addition to meeting the needs of the children, we are demonstrating the ways in which a teacher and a counselor work together.

It is obvious that it cannot be the task of the intermediate school district, employing one elementary school counselor, to provide direct counseling service to 13,000 children. At the same time, in promoting elementary guidance services, we must be able to demonstrate the efficacy of the counseling process itself. This is being done by accepting referrals for individual and group counseling on a limited basis.

It has been our good fortune to obtain a counseling and guidance intern for the second semester of this year. A cooperative agreement now exists among the University of Nebraska at Omaha, the Council Bluffs Community Schools, and our office, so that a counseling intern is now working half-time at one of the local schools, Bloomer Elementary School, in the city of Council Bluffs. This activity is recognized as an excellent way of demonstrating the work of an elementary school counselor.

We have had a project in operation in the county this year concerning behavior modification in the classroom. This project has been used to demonstrate the role of the school counselor in consulting with teachers. This emphasis upon a single kind of consulting has enabled us not only to provide consultation services, but to also provide inservice training for teachers on a very practical level.

An attempt has been made to reduce the concept of behavior modification to a very simple procedure, so that it can be used every day as a tool in the classroom. A brief explanation of the procedure has been given in teachers' meetings throughout the county, and one of the area-wide inservice meetings for teachers was devoted to this subject. Following the brief explanation, teachers have been asked to identify the child that causes the most worry to the teacher, because of inappropriate behavior. When a child is identified, the teachers have five basic steps to follow, as listed here:

1. identify specific inappropriate behavior.
2. record, systematically, the frequency of this behavior.
3. identify a reward for more appropriate behavior.
4. make an agreement with the child, and commit him to the agreement.
5. record, again, the frequency of the inappropriate behavior.

In the behavior modification project, the counselor serves the teacher as a consultant in many ways, although many teachers have used the procedure without any outside help. The identification of a specific target behavior, the identification of a reward for more appropriate behavior, the commitment of the child to an agreement, and checking to see if the behavior is, in fact, modified, all are critical points in the procedure, and may require the consultation with the school counselor.

It must be pointed out that this has involved working with teachers who are worried about children who have behavior problems. It cannot be looked upon as a developmental guidance activity. However, many children in our county are most efficient learners as a result of this work. We feel that by providing effective service in crisis or problem situations, we will earn the right to work with children on a developmental basis.

This behavior modification project has become important because of one other factor. The elementary guidance coordinator has used school psychologists as a consultant to him in many cases. School psychologists have also become interested in the project, and have referred some cases to the school counselor. This close cooperation between guidance and psychology as two services provided for children has strengthened both areas in our county.

As we look to the future, many possibilities seem open to use. Because of the response to the services which have been provided, it is planned that our school system will employ at least one other guidance consultant for the next school year. We expect to have elementary school counselors in many of the local districts soon, and at that point, the county office consultants will begin to work with counselors, in order to make counseling time more efficient in local buildings.

We feel that at the elementary school level, the family is highly important as a guidance resource. In the future, it is planned that we will work more and more with parents. We wish to provide family consultation and family group consultation services, in addition to helping parents in crisis situations.

ED0 48602

Strategies

For Implementation of Guidance in the Elementary School

Role of the Superintendent and School Board

Robert L. Frank

William A. Matthes

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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State of Iowa
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FOREWORD

In 1969 the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction published Elementary Guidance In Iowa - A Guide. Its concluding sentence was "The writers hope this handbook will be one of many publications contributing to organized programs of guidance services for all youth in Iowa's elementary schools." With this in mind and in response to many requests, this series of five monographs has been developed. They include: Models and Direction, Role of the Superintendent and School Board, Role of the Principal, Role of the Teacher, and Role of the Secondary School Counselor. Each is complete in itself. In this way, they are planned to assist all personnel of local schools in establishing organized guidance programs at the elementary school level.

A special thanks of appreciation is given to the authors, Dr. Robert L. Frank, Associate Professor of Education and Psychology, Counselor Education, University of Northern Iowa, and Dr. William A. Matthes, Assistant Professor of Education, Division of Counselor Education, The University of Iowa.

GUIDANCE SERVICES SECTION

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Administrative Leadership 3

In-Service Education. 8

Identifying the Specialist Role 11

Execution of the Counselor Role 14

Evaluation and Assessment 15

Insuring Healthy Public Relations 18

Special Considerations in Implementing a Program of Elementary Guidance. 19

References. 22

ROLE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT AND SCHOOL BOARD

Society today views the school as the means by which we develop an informed and responsible citizenry. Society demands that opportunities be provided for the individual to acquire and utilize the skills, attitudes and values which will make him a productive member of the society.

> So complex is the process of promoting the development of human beings that every school, even the best, is in constant need of adjustment and improvement. A school should be a vibrant, changing place. For the flexible, creative administrator there are ample opportunities--indeed challenges to change. (Educational Policies Commission, 1962 p. 25)

The school board represents a body of concerned, dedicated laymen who give their time and talents for the improvement of the educational programs within the schools. Their role is to develop, along with the school superintendent, the basic policies which guide the operation of the school.

A clear delination must exist between the day-by-day operation of the school and the basic policy making by the Board of Education. As lay people, the board lacks the ability to make correct decisions regarding the day-by-day operation of the school. The board's prime responsibility is that of educational planning. In order to perform this role effectively they must become "learners among learners", open to experimentation, innovation, and revision of the status quo. As educational planners, the Board of Education must be dreamers, visionaries, idealists in relating to the needs of their children. In the true sense of the work, the board is an agent of change. Change is a double edged sword. Change is good

because it keeps us dynamic, involved in the changing society, providing knowledge, and values which are relevant and significant in today's society. Change is bad because it disturbs the conformity and security of the known. The unknown may cause us to become more insecure in an already insecure world. To relate to the absolute, the "truth" which we call knowledge in our curriculum is safe, it's known. But what is absolute, what is truth? Our scientific genius is continually discovering the untruth of our former truth. Our social conditions continually draw an awareness to the inconsistency of our world. Only through an openness which allows innovation, imagination, and experimentation can we develop the flexibility and problem solving skills within children to succeed in the society we have created for them.

Our society looks to education to provide its leaders and its followers. Yet the statement "Education is 50 years behind the times" is frequently heard. If so, what an important role the School Board has in being receptive to change. Their involvement in the education process demands they be open themselves, communicate their learning to the community and seek its support. Finally, the board utilizes its finest skill in selecting a school administrator, the superintendent, who can implement the planning of the board.

The superintendent is an individual constantly involved in learning about learning. He communicates through his day by day activities a living demonstration of a commitment to learning. Through in-service contacts the superintendent focuses the activities of his staff upon the product of the

system: THE CHILD. He becomes involved in the total process of education and by necessity delegates distinct responsibilities to various staff members. It becomes the responsibility of the delegated agents to facilitate the day by day process of implementation, either reporting directly to the superintendent or through the building principals. This channel of communication is established in the manner which will facilitate the successful completion of the desired goal.

It is the responsibility of the superintendent to make all provisions for the guidance program on the same basis that he accepts the responsibility for making provisions for other aspects of the total program which come under his supervision.

ADMINISTRATIVE LEADERSHIP

The school administrator holds a primary responsibility for that creative leadership, vision and encouragement to all educational services which enhances the positive growth and development of each child. For the guidance program this leadership is expressed by:

1. working with the board of education and the community to secure acceptance and support of the guidance program.
2. establishing a climate of awareness about children's normal problems and differences, child study methods, and community resources through a well-planned in-service education program.
3. selection of teachers who are not only competent in their chosen field but who are by attitude and preparation sensitive to the needs and differences of children.
4. placing responsibility in the hands of school staff for study and development of guidance policy and services.

5. identifying specific gaps or needs in the total guidance program, elementary or secondary, where improved services are needed.

6. providing for fully qualified counselors and other specialized workers at appropriate ratios to pupils in both elementary and secondary school levels.

7. providing facilities, space, time and budget for the total guidance program.

8. making a clear, policy distinction between administrative and counseling duties.

9. providing continued professional support to guidance services through encouragement of parent meetings, public reports, research and service studies of school holding power, follow up of graduates and academic progress of students.

10. planning in terms of a coordinated program of guidance and specialized services from kindergarten through senior high school.

Recent pressures of our society, social conditions as well as a personal search for meaning, have suggested that guidance services are needed not only on the secondary level but also at the elementary school level. The goal of guidance is to facilitate learning about society and self so that each child can develop into a "fully functioning individual."

Section 3.5 (14) of the Standards for Approval of Schools states:

> Guidance services in elementary schools. Effective September 1, 1970, the board shall institute a program of guidance services for its elementary schools. Each pupil shall have access to the minimum amount of guidance service specified by the board and recorded in its minutes.

Each school district is asked to provide an answer to this question: How are we meeting the guidance needs of our children in the elementary school? Each school board will be asked beginning in September, 1970 to answer this

question in the minutes of the board meeting. No attempt is being made to require the presence of an elementary school counselor at this time.

While the hiring of an elementary school counselor may be one outward sign that the school is meeting the guidance needs, it may not at the present time be the best solution for the situation. Schools which have obtained elementary school counselors have in general been well pleased with the service provided to children and teachers. Counselors seem to demand a continual focus among teachers on the specific needs of children within the classroom so that the teacher becomes more aware of her total student population and the environment in which they function. However, at the current time, the supply of trained counselors is limited; and it is felt schools could endanger the development of a program if handled by an untrained or partially trained individual. Still another danger in securing a counselor is the belief that "because we now have a counselor the teacher can divorce herself from guidance." This view necessitates the counselor becoming a person who works with problem children. He operates in a manner very similar to the school psychologist and remains a separate entity even though he operates within the school.

While not suggesting a school not secure a counselor, it may be best to wait until the school is "ready" and seeks this individual to meet the identifiable needs within the school. During this time it may be more desirable to involve the entire educational structure--Board of Education, superintendent, the professional staff, parents and students in identifying and determining ways in which the school can meet the needs of children.

Organizational patterns for guidance differ markedly among various schools. The differences among schools in the same system is sometimes more marked than the variations among schools of different cities. The pattern or organization should be the best plan under the conditions, which include such matters as physical facilities, available personnel, and equipment. Smaller schools will affect a different organization from those in larger ones; but even among schools of comparable size, there is not a good specific standard pattern.

The individual needs of children differ from child to child, school to school, city to city, A basic question becomes, "What are the special needs of our children? How can we identify them? Is our school doing everything possible to meet these needs?" The answers to questions of this type are not easy to obtain, but to avoid answering them can only magnify the significance of the problems.

Through the leadership of the board the staff of the schools are continually seeking to discover what these needs are and how the school can best meet these needs. While the superintendent and the Board of Education often delegate to building principals the operational evaluation, schools must attempt to meet the child's personal--social--as well as academic needs.

Several suggestions for determining students' needs may be advanced. No one or even a combination of alternatives should be ignored if it will assist in identifying the child's needs. Among them might be:

1. Encourage more communication between parents and the board.

2. The board may formulate citizen advisory groups who assist in clarifying the child's needs from outside the school's point of view.

3. Assist the superintendent to provide an environment which encourages research and development within the learning process.

4. Provide building principals with support, both financially and in staffing, to allow research activities to be undertaken within the normal realm of the educational process.

5. Encourage through building principals, the interest, concern and direction to determine student needs. Commercial materials are available through which the principal can undertake an effort to determine student needs. Among these are:

   a. J. Kough and R.R. DeHaan. Teacher's Guidance Handbook: Elementary Edition, Part I. Identifying Children with Special Needs and Part II, Helping Children with Special Needs. Chicago: Science Research Associates. This material consists of two booklets directed toward the elementary school teacher and provides a "Roster Workbook" in which she can identify and then help children. Areas identified are both positive and negative.

   b. The Mooney Problem Check List or the SRA Junior Youth Inventory. These are similar check lists appropriate for use in the upper elementary grades. While these instruments are designed primarily for individual interpretation, an instrument such as this tends to focus the areas in which students feel the need for help. Care should be taken not to use this approach unless additional direct contact is planned with the child. The composite results may be used by the principal to facilitate interest in teacher in-service education.

   c. Social and emotional needs of children may be identified by teachers with an instrument developed by Eli Bower, A Screening Device to Identify Emotionally Maladjusted Children. Educational Testing Service. This device involves self-evaluation, peer evaluation and student evaluation.

Even with evidence from studies that illustrate the need for guidance services, this evidence must be communicated to the local situation as it

exists within each school building. The superintendent and Board of Education who attempt to initiate educational change must consult those whose task it is to effect the change. If the guidance program is to be effective, the principal must want a guidance program and a substantial number of the teachers must want the program. In addition, if a counselor is to be effective, the principal must want a counselor and a substantial number of the teachers must want the counselor. This "want" can only be developed through an interaction among the teaching staff, the administrators, parents and children. This interaction is the foundation of an in-service education program.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

The in-service program is based on the concept that the quality of the elementary guidance program and, in turn, the school's program can be improved significantly by increasing staff competencies through a planned, organized and continuing program of in-service education.

In-service education should be provided at several different levels including:

1. the entire staff to develop general principles and concepts
2. the guidance staff members to increase professional growth
3. specialized staff and consultants on activities within the program
4. a generalized in-service program directed for board members and community leaders to keep them current on directions within the educational program.

This should be a planned scheduled program. In many communities the school

board becomes so involved in "major decisions" that they do not have time to become involved in what the children are experiencing within the classroom. For this reason, the administrator and the board members must be involved as contributors and as learners in the program designed for the school. What better way can the board communicate to the staff its interest and concern in the program for children?

The school administrator has some very definable responsibilities within the realm of in-service education: (Twiford, 1965, p. 14-15)

1. Provide leadership in obtaining support for the counselor in-service program through assisting the Board of Education to understand better the need for such a program.

2. Develop readiness through exploring cooperatively with the counseling staff the importance and need for in-service education.

3. Initiate the planning and organizing of a continuing and coordinated program.

4. Make use of staff committees and outside consultants in setting up the program.

5. Develop a manual of objectives, policies, and procedures in which operational aspects of the program are set forth clearly and concisely.

6. Provide for the individualized approach in in-service education through a designated "center", when feasible, with adequate physical facilities, and under the general direction of a coordinator who assists in designing individual programs. Such a recognized center of in-service activity is evidence of the integral nature of the in-service program in the school's total organizational program pattern, and assures continuity and stability for such a program.

7. Arrange, probably with the assistance of a counselor committee, for certain group activities to serve the purposes of individualized counselor in-service programs. These may include workshops, conferences, demonstrations, lectures, panel discussions, role playing sessions, counseling, case study, administration of tests, etc., which are sponsored and centered within the school system, as well as activities sponsored by "outside" agencies.

8. Provide resource materials and personnel in the in-service center. Resource materials might include professional reading matter, films, tape recordings, and other audiovisual aids. Resource personnel or consultants would conduct or assist in conducting the planned programs of group activities.

9. Allow time and funds to permit counselor participation in appropriate in-service activities.

10. Encourage research, experimentation, and evaluation relating to in-service education activities and procedures for counselors.

In most cases the specifics of the in-service program will develop in accordance to the unique needs of each school. Guidelines for a system-wide program, however, can be most helpful. The best programs are those designed around an existing problem or concern of a substantial number of the staff, and open to modification and change as teachers gain personal competency in handling the situation.

Such a program, by necessity, should be an integral part of the educational system's responsibilities. In-service training cannot be something added to an already overcrowded teacher's role. The board has the responsibility to insure that adequate in-service educational occurs within the school day. Even when conditions are optimized, change cannot occur within the staff unless they are open to it.

Essential to the planning and development of a formalized guidance program is an evaluation of the existing program. As the various elements are focused upon, areas of further study are identified and action undertaken to meet these needs. Frequently, the study identifies the need for a specialist who can better coordinate and work directly with student and teacher needs.

IDENTIFYING THE SPECIALIST ROLE

As the school considers and makes the decision to secure an elementary school counselor, it is important to secure an individual who can help to meet the needs identified. As indicated in the "core material", no two counselors operate in a fixed manner. His flexibility is based on adjusting his basic philosophical base to the situation.

It is the board's responsibility, upon consultation with superintendent and staff, to decide on the direction of the guidance program. The basic criteria to be consider is: "Are the needs of students provided for?"

Earl Moore (1968) suggests several strategies for initiating programs. (See Figure 1) In each case the role is identified, the justification and advantages are stated, and its evolution and common problems are explained. An examination of these approaches indicates a series of generalizations concerning each model. In each case the school must select the model which most nearly meets its needs and must modify it to the particular setting.

FIGURE 1

TEN COMMON STRATEGIES FOR INITIATING COUNSELING & GUIDANCE PROGRAMS

IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Initial Role & Function	Justification & Advantages	Probable Evolution	Common Problems
1. Administrative-Supervisory--organization, mobilization of resources; consultation, evaluation, a program development	Feasible, can readily change; can increase funding gradually	Extend more services to teachers, pupils & parents; add staff as program develops; systematic step-by-step approach	Leadership in organization of programs & staff; must change image as program progresses
2. Crises-Casework--Often Title I supported; remedial concept; case liaison, counseling evaluation	Popular, solves pressing problems; support from government funding gets program started	Extend services to other schools; increase services to non-crises cases	Limited objectives; casework overloaded, staff problems; crises image becomes established
3. Clinic Team--Often Title I and/or Title III supported; part of a mental health or learning disabilities team; referral and consultation	High quality service, support from government to get started, encourages multi-disciplinary approach	Extended services to preventive work; add specialties to increase case load	Limited objectives; team coordination; builds backing of cases & therefore affects image
4. Single Building Try Out--Add counselor to an elementary school where it could be best accepted; establish a model program for the other schools in the community	Model of best program, modify easily, best chance for success and acceptance	Extend to other buildings; modify approach or model for other schools to use	Justification for selection of one school; limited on community; looks experimental
5. Single Concept Function--Limited and specified role, e.g. only home visitations, testing, only orientation activities, only educational planning	Solves pressing problems can change & add; easily administered	Add and extend functions; more contacts and as staff is increased	Stereotyped objectives; impact minimal; coordination & integration problems

FIGURE 1

TEN COMMON STRATEGIES FOR INITIATING COUNSELING & GUIDANCE PROGRAMS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS (cont.)

Initial Role & Function	Justification & Advantages	Probable Evolution	Common Problems
6. Part-time Staff Allocation--Provide current teachers with released time; usually individual counseling, testing & referral	Easy to get started, easily controlled and easily extended	Eventually full time staff; additional functions	Staff quality; limits impact on community, little status
7. Total Push--One element of a multiple concept; could include a cross-sectional staff, institutes curriculum & in-service programs	Less resistance, part of new program, enthusiastic approach	Add staff to increase effectiveness; extend services	High risk; staffing total commitment, difficult to change; coordination
8. Shared Services--County or area team; services limited to consultation, evaluation & referral; may be in the form of a traveling mobile unit	Little resistance, can change easily; quality staff	Add staff for greater services	Very limited objectives; impact minimal; lack individual school system commitment to program
9. Limited Level--Select feasible level, e.g. 6th grade or kindergarten; extend up or down, some services provided in each school	Systematic, not overextended; good chance for success	Extend to other levels; add staff and extend services	Justification on where to start; readiness & continuation; waste if not continued as group moves
10. Combined Duties--A position included within administrative, reading diagnosis, testing, visiting teachers or other specialist duties; jack-of-all trades approach	Easily started, utilize present staff	Add staff--either more combinations or more specialized	Limits commitment & identification; difficulty in maintaining quality of staff

EXECUTION OF THE COUNSELOR ROLE

David Malcolm (1968) as Chairman of a joint committee of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision and the American School Counselor Association indicated the "Expectations and Commitments of School Counselors". Among the expectations:

I. The superintendent and the board have the right to expect the work of the counselor to contribute to the purpose of the school.

   A. He should contribute directly to the specific purposes of the school by helping students to be prepared to receive the maximum educational benefits from the classroom.

   B. The work of the counselor should contribute directly to the board purposes of education in a democratic society such as personal growth of students, desirable human relationships, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility.

II. The superintendent and the board have a right to expect the counselor to be the protective guardian of individuality and of the individual. This is essential in an institution which must, by its very nature, often value conformity, risk the dampening of creativity, and place concern for the mass above that of the individual.

   A. The counselor should provide each student who so desires an opportunity for self-exploration and self-discovery of his own innermost feelings and personal values in a non-threatening relationship with a mature adult.

   B. The counselor should work directly with teachers and other significant adults to help them to understand and foster the unique individuality of each student.

   C. The counselor should participate in curriculum construction and other school policy-making activities with special responsibility for insuring that guidance-point-of-view permeate the total activities of the school.

III. The superintendent and the board have a right to expect the work of the counselor to be founded on sound rationale. This is one of the distinguishing characteristics of the work of the professional person.

IV. The superintendent and the board have a right to expect the counselors to have a commitment to school counseling as a profession. This presumes not only continued employment, but a life-long desire to go on learning.

In return the counselor should expect certain commitments from the superintendent and school board.

I. The superintendent and the board should make a commitment to hire only well qualified, fully trained professional persons--and then give them freedom and responsibility commensurate with their level of specialized preparation.

II. The superintendent and the board should make a commitment to view counseling as a professional career position.

This means utilizing the counseling position for functions integral to guidance services and not permitting it to be eroded by such uses as:

A. A stepping-stone to administrative positions or a training ground for improving the skills of the classroom teacher.

B. A device for getting extra help with either routine clerical or lower level administrative tasks.

C. A special reward to be handed out to a few favored teachers in return for distinguished or faithful service.

D. A person available to take over odd, unwanted assignments or to pinch hit as a substitute teacher.

III. The superintendent and the board should make a commitment to provide the counselor with sufficient time and facilities for the effective performance of his duties.

EVALUATION AND ASSESSMENT

Evaluation must be an integral part of the development of a guidance program. If, as we have claimed, guidance is a change process, we need to assess and evaluate the effectiveness of the change we have planned.

Any successful program must effectively answer six significant questions regarding the elementary school guidance program. (Meeks, 1967)

1. Is the program based on the needs of the individual child in his educational setting?

2. Does the program provide for the developmental needs of each child in the school, including personal-social and emotional as well as learning needs?

3. Does the program recognize the significance of the teacher's role in providing educational experiences which free the child to learn?

4. Does the program provide specialized personnel on the school staff to provide assistance:
   a. To enhance the teacher's role in resolving children's problems?
   b. To aid parents in resolving children's problems?

5. Does the program provide referral services for children with unusual or severe problems?

In order for evaluation to occur, some criteria must be assessed. This criteria may be stated in terms of the current status, objectives or outcomes.

Evaluation can be viewed on three levels: assessment by an internal criteria, assessment by an external criteria, and assessment through experimentation.

Assessment of both internal and external criteria collect data in either an enumerative or opinion level. Enumerative data seek to tally or tabulate "How many?". Success is determined by having the "right" amounts at the "right" time. Instead of being objective like enumerative data, opinion data tends to be subjective and represents attitudes.

Internal evaluation represents evaluation made by the students, teachers, and counselors. There are many forms which ask for opinion responses. Illustrative of the various opinionnaires or questionnaires are:

1. The Student Inventory of Guidance Awareness and
2. The Teacher Inventory of Guidance Awareness, both published by the Division of Guidance and Testing, State Department of Education, Columbus, Ohio, 1962 and 1963.
3. The Pupil Evaluation form developed by George McClary "Interpreting Guidance Programs to Pupils", Guidance Monograph Series, Houghton-Mifflin, 1968, pp. 82-85.
4. The Counselor Self-Evaluation in McClary, Ibid. pp. 85-89, and
5. A Check List of Elements in a Guidance Program for Elementary Schools, State of Oklahoma, "A Handbook for the Improvement of Guidance and Counseling in Oklahoma Schools, Grades K-12", 1961, pp. 77-86.
6. Guidance Evaluation Questionnaire for Elementary Schools, Honolulu, Department of Education, State of Hawaii, G SE Form 2-A revised May 1, 1966. This is one of the most comprehensive program evaluation forms available and provides excellent enumerative data of the program within the school.

Examples of instruments based on an external criteria are:

1. Section G of The Criteria for Evaluation of Catholic Elementary Schools, The Catholic University of America Press, 1965. This represents an adaptation of the Section "G" of the Criteria for Evaluation of the North Central Accrediting Association, and can be used in all schools to good advantage.
2. Criteria for Evaluating Guidance Programs in Secondary Schools. Arthur L. Benson (ed.), Form D, Office of Education reprint. Misc. 3317 Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, 1949. This form remains one of the best criteria and can be adapted to elementary use with a minimum of difficulty.

Experimental designs are usually developed to determine the effectiveness of a particular outcome sought. Frank and Bosdell (1966) suggest that the

criteria of effectiveness is a difficult one to identify and find that most studies use the criteria of adjustment, achievement and satisfaction.

The school may find that none of these evaluation check lists fit the particular needs of the school and may find it desirable to develop their own instruments.

At the present time in developing and initiating guidance programs, both objective and subjective data are necessary to improve the guidance program.

The board should seek and encourage evaluation, as it can make for more accurate and adequate decisions within the school. However, recognition must be given to the prime purpose of evaluation to improve conditions in the future. If the board and the superintendent are not cognizant of the findings of the research, it is best not to identify the area of concern at all.

INSURING HEALTHY PUBLIC RELATIONS

One of the major problems facing our education system is the problem of keeping all of its publics--parents, teachers, children, as well as the general population--aware of what is transpiring within the school. All of these publics contribute to this information program; but the superintendent and the board have the responsibility to keep everyone informed of not only the total, educational program, but particularly those aspects which are developing. Programs need to be discussed in terms of their

relationship to fulfilling the objectives and outcomes desired within the school as they relate to the child, and not in terms of dollars and cents. If a new or expanded program is needed to meet the needs of children, can we afford not to implement it?

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS IN IMPLEMENTING A PROGRAM OF ELEMENTARY GUIDANCE

A. Cost of Program: Studies on the cost of guidance services are few in number and largely conducted at the secondary school level. Most of these studies estimate from 3-5% of the total budget for guidance services. About 85% of the expenditures tend to go to counselor salary; the remainder to materials and clerical needs. The materials expenditure can vary, depending on whether testing is included or not. For example, while the Iowa Basic Skills or some other achievement battery may be of interest to the student, is this their prime use in school? Or are they designed and used for curricular purpose? Is this then a guidance or an instructional expense?

Several factors can influence the cost of guidance services. Among them are such factors as:

1. the school's salary schedule
2. the type of service provided
3. the community's interest in providing these services
4. the availability of counselors
5. the availability of clerical assistance
6. the counselor-student or counselor-teacher ratio

B. Physical Facilities: Physical facilities for the elementary school counselor provide the counselor with room to work either individually or with small groups (5-10). A playroom setting which allows the use of water and sand are necessary for counseling.

As few schools have made provision for elementary guidance, many find that a regular size classroom can be divided in such a manner as to provide a reception area for clerical services, a playroom, and two counselor offices. The counselor's office should be large enough to meet with the parents of a child. The second counselor office can be used by other specialized personnel who may be operating in the school on a limited basis. The playroom should be large enough to hold a group session of children or adults for counseling, consultation or testing purposes. It has been suggested that these facilities be observable; either by one-way windows or video taping facilities. Facilities of this nature would facilitate the consultative process and could be used for in-service purposes for the staff.

Facilities need to be private and soundproof. The counseling process frequently allows children an emotional release which could distract the typical school setting.

C. Securing Adequately Trained Personnel: As the teaching staff evaluates the needs within their setting, they may conclude that a counselor at the elementary school level would be desirable and a request may be made to the superintendent and the board. As the board attempts to find personnel, they are finding the number of elementary school

counselors is in short supply. Competition is intense for the services of these individuals.

Universities are intensifying their efforts to increase the number of trained personnel, but most training programs require one or two years full time graduate study, or three to five years on a summer or part time basis, the supply of qualified personnel is limited.

School administrators and boards should discourage the practice of hiring partially trained personnel. It is unfair to a child, his teacher, the counselor, and the future of the guidance program to ask this individual to handle every situation which the position demands when he has not the cognitive foundation for it. With adequate training, the counselor has at least an even start. To start with a handicap can do nothing but endanger the relationship.

What then are the alternatives?

1. The school staff may continue its study of child study, information services and interpersonnel relations but operate without a counselor.

2. Through the use of consultant service from the State Department of Public Instruction, the county or intermediate units, and the counselor education staffs at the various state universities, a continuing and in-depth consultant experience can improve the level of the total teaching staff to meet the needs of students. The board can provide both time and finances to facilitate this in-service emphasis.

3. The superintendent can examine the qualifications of the personnel within his school(s) and encourage them to pursue graduate study in the area of elementary school guidance. Such arrangements by the board, as a paid leave of absence to pursue graduate study based upon commitment to return, may have merit.

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Strategies

For Implementation of Guidance in the Elementary School

Role of the Secondary School Counselor

William A. Matthes

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

In 1969 the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction published Elementary Guidance In Iowa - A Guide. Its concluding sentence was "The writers hope this handbook will be one of many publications contributing to organized programs of guidance services for all youth in Iowa's elementary schools." With this in mind and in response to many requests, this series of five monographs has been developed. They include: Models and Direction, Role of the Superintendent and School Board, Role of the Principal, Role of the Teacher, and Role of the Secondary School Counselor. Each is complete in itself. In this way, they are planned to assist all personnel of local schools in establishing organized guidance programs at the elementary school level.

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GUIDANCE SERVICES SECTION

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Consultation 4

In-Service Education 7

Child Study. 9

Informational Services 18

Relationship Techniques. 21

Summary. 24

References 24

INDEX OF APPENDIX

APPENDIX A: How I See Myself, Elementary Form

APPENDIX B: Self-Esteem Inventory

APPENDIX C: Behavior Rating Form

APPENDIX D: Behavioral Observations

APPENDIX E: Rutter's Child Behavior Rating Scale

APPENDIX F: The Class Play

APPENDIX G: Social History Outline

ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL COUNSELOR

The demand for professionally prepared individuals to function as counselors in the elementary schools has increased tremendously over the past decade. It is expected that this facet of the guidance movement will expand more rapidly than others in the future. Hitchcock (1965) predicted that by 1970 over 26,000 elementary school counselors would be needed across the nation and by 1975 over 53,000 counselors would be needed in the elementary schools. A recent survey sponsored by the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction (Brown, 1967) revealed that a tremendous demand for qualified elementary school counselors exists within the State of Iowa. This combined with the fact that fewer than 4,000 elementary school counselors were identified across the entire nation (Van Hoose and Varakas, 1968) and less than five dozen qualified elementary school counselors now reside in Iowa represents both a problem and a challenge to the counseling profession. In Iowa the profession is in the position of not only being unable to meet the predicted demands for qualified personnel, but also of having local boards of education specify what minimal guidance services are in the elementary schools. Section 3.5 (14) of the Standards for Approval of Schools, states:

> Guidance services in elementary schools. Effective September 1, 1970, the board shall institute a program of guidance services for its elementary schools. Each pupil shall have access to the minimum amount of guidance service specified by the board and recorded in its minutes.

The counseling profession has been placed in a situation in regard to elementary school guidance which is quite similar to that of the secondary

school guidance movement in the early 1960's. The profession is unable to supply qualified personnel to meet the demands and outside groups are dictating what minimal guidance services are in the elementary schools. The response of educators associated with the elementary schools has been positive, but cautious. Rather than developing guidance programs from ignorance they are exploring the possibilities and questioning the alternatives. These individuals agree that better guidance programs are needed for the students in the elementary schools and are seeking means to improve their present programs. Since the availability of qualified elementary school counselors is limited, individuals associated with the counseling profession, both junior and senior high school counselors, must exert themselves and provide leadership to local boards of education and educators in the development of guidance programs for their elementary schools when the qualified personnel are unavailable. If those associated with the counseling profession remain indifferent to what is happening in the elementary schools and do not exert themselves, chaos and confusion may result. The development of poorly conceptualized and implemented guidance programs in the elementary schools will create problems not only for students and staff, but also for the counseling profession. The impact of poorly designed and staffed programs in the elementary schools upon the counselors in the junior and senior high school settings will be great. The distorted perceptions and expectancies of counselors resulting from ill-defined guidance programs will limit the effectiveness of junior and senior high school counselors. If for no other reason than this, junior and senior high school counselors need to become involved in the development of guidance programs in the elementary schools.

Since counselors are not present in the vast majority of the elementary schools across the State of Iowa there are two methods by which guidance services in these schools can be improved. First, the junior and senior high school counselors could take the necessary course work to meet the certification requirements at the elementary school level and thus provide the necessary counseling, consulting, and coordination for the elementary schools. However, to adopt such a strategy,in most instances, counselors would need to be released from other counseling responsibilities. In reality this strategy is based on the principle of robbing Peter to pay Paul. In this case the high school students would be denied services in order that elementary school students' needs could be met.

The second method which could be employed to improve guidance services in the elementary schools focuses on the development of skills among other members of the guidance team, the classroom teachers and the school administrator. Counselors can design in-service types of activities which would focus upon such areas as group dynamics, interpersonal relationships, communication, child study, or informational services. Functioning as a consultant, the junior and senior high school counselors can make a greater impact on the guidance services in the elementary school.

The following material focuses upon the consulting process. It discusses the process; forms of in-service activities which may be implemented in the elementary school; and surveys the child study techniques, informational sources, and relationship techniques which are pertinent to the elementary school. It is designed to assist junior and senior high counselors in implementing guidance programs in the elementary schools when elementary school counselors are not present.

CONSULTATION

The consultative relationship is usually temporary and evolves from the need on the part of the system, in this case the elementary school, for assistance from a specialist to solve a problem or to meet a need. The concept of consultation is actually based on the authority of ideas. The ideas developed in the relationship serve as the guidelines rather than any authority inherent in various administrative relationships. The worth and direction of a true consulting relationship are determined by the ideas generated.

Seven phases through which the consultative relationship passes during the process of change have been identified (Lippitt, Watson, and Westley; 1958). The seven phases are as follows:

1. The need for change is perceived by the consultee.
2. The consulting relationship is established.
3. With the aid of the consultant the consultee clarified his difficulties.
4. Those involved in the relationship examine the various solutions in relation to the goals they desire to achieve.
5. The consultee attempts to change the situation.
6. This new level of functioning is stabilized and generalized to other situations.
7. The consultative relationship is terminated without affecting the consultee's ability to function at this new level.

In order for the last phase of this process to occur the consultant must develop within the consultee the ability to solve problems of a similar nature in the future. This implies that the consultant functions not only

as a specialist who possesses certain skills, methods, and concepts, but also as a trainer who prepares the consultee for the future. He does not merely solve the consultee's problem and disappear.

The counselor at the high school level, functioning as a consultant to elementary school personnel, therefore, as an "outsider", can make the following unique contributions to the consulting relationship:

1. As a neutral agent in the problem situation persons within the elementary school are free to diagnose the difficulty and seek a solution.

2. The consultant serves as a stimulus for redefining the situation.

3. As an agent of change the consultant provides the initiative for others to explore sometimes difficult and unknown areas.

4. As the process of change evolves the consultant provides support to those involved.

5. The consultant stimulates the continuous diagnosis of problems and concerns.

6. The consultant brings to the relationship information, procedures, and knowledge of resources to aid in the solution of the problem.

The actual consulting process is quite similar to the counseling relationship. The consultant is supportive, aids in the exploration of alternatives, provides information and knowledge, and ultimately tries to create a system in which he will no longer be needed.

The focus of the consulting relationship may be upon developing skills within the personnel of the elementary school, upon dealing with a particular population of students, e.g. underachievers, potential drop-outs, or

upon establishing the administrative structure of the guidance program such as in the areas of articulation, orientation, and testing.

From the consulting relationship three things should evolve (Lippitt, 1959). First, the consultee should be able to deal with the problem or concern which initiated the consulting process. Second, the consultee should be better able to clarify future problems as they emerge. Finally, the consultee should have learned new procedures and new types of organization to help maintain a healthy state of "changeability in adapting to conditions." If these three things result from the consulting relationship it has been successful.

However, like the reluctant client with whom the counselor must deal, elementary school personnel might also be reluctant to establish a consulting relationship with a high school counselor. One must recognize that for a system such as an elementary school to establish a consulting relationship the personnel must admit that they are not functioning in the most effective manner. Like a reluctant client the system must admit that they need assistance. One method to stimulate a system is to get it involved in an evaluation of its activities. If a system is certain it is functioning effectively it should be willing to evaluate its effectiveness. There are a number of methods of evaluation. The following criteria may be employed:

> The National Catholic Educational Association, Criteria for Evaluation of Catholic Elementary Schools, 1965, Section G, Guidance Services, Washington, D.C., The Catholic University Of American Press, Inc., 1965.

Hawaii Department of Education, Elementary School Guidance in Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii: Department of Education, Oct., 1964.

Ohio State Department of Education, Ohio Elementary School Standards, Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education, 1957.

California State Department of Education, Guidelines for Pupil Personnel Services in the Elementary School, Sacramento, California, California State Department of Education, 1967.

Missouri State Department of Education, Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, (rev. ed.) Jefferson City, Missouri, State Department of Education, 1965.

Any one of the above criteria, if employed in the evaluation of a guidance program in an elementary school, will stimulate the faculty to examine its practices and possibly seek outside assistance from a consultant. Only if the faculty perceives the need and seeks assistance can a consultant be effective. Some elementary school staffs might discover a lack of an effective child study program while another faculty might discover a need to develop skills in the area of communication. The direction of the consulting relationship should be determined by the needs of the system and not the consultant.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

The consulting relationship is the basis for in-service education. The range of in-service activities which can be employed in schools is limited only by administrative policies, the faculty's willingness and commitment to professional improvement, and the creativity of the consultants who design the activities. Peters and Shertzer (1963) discuss the following seven forms of in-service activities:

1. Teacher meetings: Through teacher meetings counselors can stimulate discussion of problems related to the guidance program and means through which the program can be implemented.

2. Visits to other schools: Representatives of the faculty can visit elementary schools which have functioning guidance programs. The Iowa State Department of Public Instruction has a list of guidance programs functioning at the elementary school level.

3. Workshops: The increasing popularity of workshops attests to their effectiveness as a method of developing new skills and attitudes within the participants.

4. Case conferences: By involving teachers and other personnel in case conferences communication among the faculty and staff is improved and new skills are learned.

5. Consultants: Consultants from universities, state departments, and other school districts can be employed to conduct in-service activities in an informal or formal manner.

6. Study Groups: Small groups of individuals concerned about a particular area such as child development, child study, interpersonal relationships can be formed as needed. However, it is imperative that in the beginning leadership be provided.

7. University courses: Through extension services many universities provide an opportunity to educators for the development of skills under the direction of experts.

The public schools of Deerfield, Illinois, have been involved in the preparation of guidance assistants for the past few years. The uniqueness of the program is in the method they have developed which could easily be adapted to prepare teachers to function more effectively in the guidance program. The staff of the project have developed a number of programmed instructional units in the area of child study and testing which the guidance assistants are required to complete. It would be quite easy and very effective to develop programmed units to cover topics related to guidance activities.

The following principles (Peters and Shertzer, 1963) should guide the consultant's behavior when designing in-service programs.

1. The topic of the in-service project should have some significance to those involved. Individuals become bored and have difficulty if participating in meetings which do not interest them.

2. The in-service program should evolve from the needs of the participants and not some outside authority.

3. The program should be designed so that the participants can react to each other.

4. The resources employed in the program should be varied and implemented in such a manner as to have maximum impact upon the participants.

5. The decision making structure should be simple as should the means of implementing the decisions.

The key to a successful in-service activity is to structure the experience so participants have an opportunity to become involved in the process and are not passive recipients of information.

The basis for the in-service activities related to guidance can be found in the areas of child study, informational services, and interpersonal skills. The following sections briefly describe material available in these areas and counselors wishing to develop in-service activities should explore these areas in greater depth.

CHILD STUDY

The child study program in most elementary schools consists of the administration of achievement tests annually and an aptitude or intelligence test on a biannual basis. Even with a minimal child study program of this nature

the results are usually placed in the cumulative folder of each child and little effort is made to use them. The reasons for the filing of test information for posterity range from too many demands being placed upon the faculty's time to ignorance of how to use the information. As a result of the tremendous pressures placed upon teachers to engage in other activities and a lack of understanding of test materials teachers are forced to neglect the most important element in the educational institutions, THE CHILD. It seems imperative that we, as educators, actively engage in some organized study of children we teach.

The principles of appraisal are discussed in depth by Gibson and Higgins (1966) and it is assumed that junior and senior high school counselors are familiar with them. However, there are two principles which are implicit in the discussion of appraisal by Gibson and Higgins (1966) which should be made explicit. First, when engaging in appraisal activities an individual must keep his objectives in mind. If there is no relationship between the information being collected and the original purpose for appraising a particular phenomenon the process becomes meaningless. Volumes of information collected and deposited in cumulative folders are meaningless and useless because they do not contribute to the student's educational development. The collection of information must be purposeful. Second, the collection of information must be continuous and complete so the individual using the information has a complete picture of the development of the child. It is very frustrating and disappointing to have a fragmentary and incomplete picture of a child's development when the information is needed to assist

the student. As high school counselors you are probably well aware of violations of these two implicit principles.

For organizational purposes the study of the child has been divided into the assessment of the child and the assessment of the child's environment. In reality it is extremely difficult if not impossible to separate a child from his environment when attempting to collect information about him.

Assessment of the Child

As educators we are concerned with the child's personal development as well as his educational development. Therefore, we are concerned with the child's cognitive development as well as his personal adjustment. The assessment of a student's cognitive abilities has long been a concern of educators. In fact it had been the prime concern of educators until the late thirties when the concept of the whole child came into existence. One only has to scan the Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook (Buros, 1965) to realize the vast majority of the appraisal instruments applicable to the elementary school focus upon the assessment of the cognitive abilities of children. The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook presents excellent reviews of appraisal instruments presently in print.

Although personal adjustment of students has become a prime concern of educators few standardized methods of assessing an individual's adjustment have been developed. A majority of the methods used to assess an elementary school student's adjustment require a skilled psychometrist or observer to make judgments. This is in part due to the nature of the child in the

elementary school and the present level of sophistication of our assessment techniques. At the present time it requires reading skills beyond the capacities of the typical elementary school child to complete many of the questionnaires used to measure an individual's personal adjustment. However, the following two instruments have been standardized and published:

> California Test of Personality: The reliability and validity of this instrument is questionable at best; however, it is one of the few available instruments at the elementary school level. There are forms for every age group from kindergarten to adulthood, but should only be used by a skilled individual and not administered in mass to students.
>
> SRA Junior Inventory: This inventory focuses upon the needs and problems of children in grades 4 through 8 and can be useful if analyzed item by item and not be the profile method originally designed for the inventory. This instrument can be used by the classroom teacher and other school personnel.

Although these are two common instruments used to assess a child's adjustment by requesting the individual to fill out a questionnaire, there are non-standardized methods which the counselor may find helpful.

Gordon (1966) has developed a scale which attempts to determine how a child views himself. It has been assumed by many and validated by research that an individual's perceptions of himself will affect his behavior. Gordon's scale, How I See Myself (Appendix A), represents a unique method of assessing a child's self-concept. Although Gordon (1966) points out that it has been used in grades 3 through 12 it has limited usefulness in working with culturally disadvantaged children. He further points out that the significance of this type of self-report instrument is not in the total score a child receives, but how he marks the items. In using

an instrument of this nature the teacher can get more insight into how a child perceives himself in different situations by examining the items rather than a total score. There does exist a relationship between how the child perceives himself and how trained observers feel the child perceives himself. There does appear to be some validity in this instrument.

Another instrument developed by Coopersmith (1968) attempts to measure a child's self-esteem. This instrument (Appendix B) measures a child's self-esteem generally and with regard to his peers, home, school, and has built into it a lie scale. Coopersmith (1968) has gathered some information suggesting this is a valid instrument. There are features which make this instrument attractive for use in the classroom. First, there are two highly related forms of this instrument which allows for a test-retest without duplication of the items. Secondly, one of the forms of this instrument gives some indication of a child's defensiveness through a lie scale. Third, this instrument does have some validity and a foundation in research.

The two instruments mentioned to this point are called self-report instruments. This means that the individual reports how he perceives himself. This technique has some obvious faults. One of the problems central to self-report instruments is the degree of truthfulness in the child's response. Except for Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory these instruments do not provide any indication of the child's truthfulness; a real concern of those who must interpret the results of these instruments. Secondly,

Gordon (1966) points out that the meaningfulness of the questions and the child's answers to the questions are of key importance in self-report techniques. Frequently, the questions asked on self-report instruments are removed from the child's experience, and therefore, his responses are not meaningful.

There are numerous rating scales which can be employed by trained observers to assess the child's personality. Coopersmith (1968) has developed a rating scale which attempts to measure the same factor his Self-Esteem Inventory does. This Behavior Rating Form (BRF) (Appendix C) consists of 13 items focusing upon the child's self-esteem and his defensive behavior.

Cavins and Romberg (1968) in connection with the Deerfield, Illinois, School District have developed a behavior rating scale which could be completed by a counselor or classroom teacher. This scale, Behavioral Observations (Appendix D) focuses upon the total development of the child with a great deal of emphasis upon the child's social adjustment as well as his behavior in the classroom setting. It not only gives the observer some structure for his observations, but also provides some flexibility for making anecdotal comments. This instrument was designed primarily for the needs of the personnel in the Deerfield School District #109 and could easily be adapted by many schools for their own purposes. The reliability and validity of instruments of this nature depend to a large extent upon the observer's skills and the purpose of the scale. If the observer is not perceptive or sensitive to children his observations will be of little worth.

One of the common problems counselors are confronted with is when they should seek professional assistance for a child. When should a counselor refer a child because of adjustment problems? There is some research suggesting that school personnel can make good judgments about behavior (Bower, 1960); however, there does exist a need to structure the observations and use them in adapting the environment to help the child. Because deviant behavior is exhibited in the classroom (Cooper, Ryan, and Hutcheson, 1959) it is imperative that school personnel be able to recognize it. Rutter (1967) has developed a scale by which deviant behavior can be observed and reported in a structured manner. This scale (Appendix E) can be used to gather information about the child whom you believe may need professional assistance.

Another rating scale quite similar to Rutter's Child Behavior Rating Scale has been developed by Dayton and Byrne (1967) which lists twenty-four different forms of behavior which are considered deviant. Novick, Rosenfield, Bloch, and Dawson (1966) have developed a list of 237 items describing behavior which is considered deviant. The observer simply checks whether the item is true, false, or cannot be determined. The advantage of this scale is that it can be administered to an adult, such as a parent, who knows the child well or can be completed by directly observing the child.

Assessment of the Child's Environment

The personality of the child is the result of the interaction of his inherent potential and the environment in which he exists. This section

will focus upon methods whereby information about the child's peer relationships and family can be obtained.

Methods of Assessing the Child's Peer Group: Traditionally peer relationships have been assessed through sociometrics. Sociometry which has evolved from the work of Jacob Moreno has become one of the most reliable and valid methods of assessing an individual's interpersonal relationships. One method used by Gronlund (1960) simply asks the students to nominate five individuals with whom they would like to sit, work, or play. After the entire class has made their nominations simply tally the selections for each member of the class. From this you can determine who is the most popular child in the group and who is least popular. A variation of this form of a sociometric test is to ask students with whom they would not like to sit, work, or play. This will give some insight as to whom is being rejected by his peers. From this data the classroom structure can be changed and be made more beneficial to the child.

A variation of this method is called the "Guess-Who" technique. An example of this technique has been developed by the California State Department of Education (Appendix F). This particular form of a sociometric instrument not only gives insight into how a child's classmates perceive him, but also provides insight into how the child perceives himself.

There are numerous textbooks available which discuss sociometrics in greater depth (Warters, 1960; Gibson and Higgins, 1966; Gronlund, 1969)

and an entire journal, Sociometry, which for the past two decades has focused upon interpersonal relationships and ways to assess them. Before using the various sociometric instruments it would be helpful to review some of the general guidelines presented by Warters (1960):

1. the questions should be stated in a clear and concise manner.
2. the confidentiality of the results should be made clear to the children so they will feel free to respond openly.
3. delay the use of negative questions, such as who they would not like to sit with, until they are accustomed to the sociometric procedure.
4. the children's nominations should be used to structure the classroom or they will not see any purpose in filling out the instrument.

Sociometric instruments are very reliable over a long period of time and are believed to be a good method for assessing the adjustment of a child on a global basis. Also, the results of sociometric instruments provide the teacher with some insight into structuring his classroom for more effective learning.

Assessment of the Family: Although the family plays a key role in the development of a child, educators frequently are reluctant to ask parents for information about a child. We must overcome this resistance. Through child study parents will feel like they are actively participating in the child's education. This not only will improve community-school relations, but also will provide a source of information which could be used to plan the child's educational program.

A typical method used to collect information about the family enviornment

is represented by the outline presented in Appendix G. This outline provides some structure for the collection of information through an interview with the parents of a child. There are other outlines available which might be more useful (Shertzer and Stone, 1966; Hill and Luckey, 1969; Gibson and Higgins, 1966). This technique possesses the virtue of flexibility yet is highly dependent upon the clinical skills of the interviewer and requires a great deal of time.

It should be recalled that the scale developed by Novick, Rosenfield, Bloch, and Dawson (1966) could be used to solicit information from parents about their child. Also, the Vineland Social Maturity Scale (Doll, 1947) can be used in an interview setting with the child's parents to determine the degree of self-direction, self-help, communication, socialization, etc. which the child exhibits. The advantage of using this scale is in the norms which have been developed for each item. There is normative data for each item used in the Vineland Social Maturity Scale which helps in interpreting the data gained in the interview. However, the ability to administer and interpret this instrument is developed under close clinical supervision.

INFORMATIONAL SERVICES

Hill and Luckey (1969) have suggested eight guidance learnings which should be focused upon in the elementary school. Two of these guidance learnings are concerned with the child developing an understanding of his environment and human behavior. To assist in the development of an understanding of

his environment and human behavior, a child needs accurate and reliable information. This information deals with the world of work, education, and human behavior.

Guidance from its conception has been concerned with the vocational development of individuals. Although the need for information related to occupational choice seems more immediate, the secondary school level research indicates that in reality a child's vocational development actually begins in the elementary school. During elementary school, attitudes are formed about various occupations and children begin to develop concepts of themselves which are related to occupational choice. Many of these attitudes and perceptions of self are based on inaccurate and unreliable information. By presenting accurate, reliable information to children in the elementary schools, Hoppock has suggested that the following eight purposes can be achieved:

> Acquaint the child with his community. The child will be anxious about his environment if he does not understand it. By acquainting the child with the community he will be less anxious.
>
> Encourage curiosity and exploration. By allowing the study of the world of work you perpetuate the child's natural curiosity.
>
> Create an awareness of the world of work. The child's awareness of occupational opportunities will be expanded by focusing upon the world of work.
>
> Develop a positive attitude toward the world of work. The child can be encouraged to develop a view of work as a useful and purposeful aspect of an individual's life.
>
> Develop the child's ability to make decisions. The child will begin to explore and learn decision-making skills which are essential in making vocational plans.

Provide assistance for vocational planning. Help the student who has to make a vocational choice before he enters high school. The frequency of students not completing elementary school is still quite high and the likelihood of receiving vocational guidance outside of school is quite limited.

Provide assistance for educational planning. Frequently the child must make choices about his high school program which are related to a vocational choice. Information needs to be available for students placed in this situation.

Create an understanding of financial responsibility. Show children how they can earn money and not be dependent upon illegal activities to secure money.

The classroom teacher can involve children in everything from tours of plants to actually being employed. The number of resources available and appropriate for the elementary schools are too numerous to list; however, if one wants to examine this area in greater depth, they should consult a textbook by W. Norris, Occupational Information in the Elementary School which is published by Science Research Associates. This textbook is the only one which focuses upon the use of occupational information in the elementary school; however, Hill and Luckey (1969) present an excellent chapter in their textbook and a list of materials available for use in the elementary schools. The Oklahoma State Department of Education has developed A Guide for Developmental Vocational Guidance (1968). This handbook, which resulted from a two week workshop focusing upon vocational guidance in grades K-12, provides guidelines and suggested activities for those educators who want to incorporate vocational guidance into their curriculum.

The guidance movement is not only concerned about the vocational development of children, but also about the child's personal development. It is the

purpose of guidance to develop within children self-understanding as well as understanding of others. The materials prepared by Ralph Ojemann (1958) are designed to create self-understanding and understanding of others within children. Ojemann and his associates have developed a series of materials for the elementary schools which focus upon human relations and the causes of human behavior. There are other sources of material which relate to this topic. The National Education Association has published a series entitled Unfinished Stories for Use in the Classroom which can be used to stimulate discussion of human behavior among children. Also, Science Research Associates publishes materials entitled Social Science Laboratory Units (Lippitt, Fox, and Schaible, 1968) which can be used in grades 4, 5, & 6. This material represents a seven-unit series designed to deal with the dynamics of human relations. It deals with the areas of friendly and unfriendly behavior, understanding people who are different, group dynamics, growing up, influence as social power, and decision-making.

RELATIONSHIP TECHNIQUES

The role of the counseling relationship in the elementary school is probably one of the most debated aspects of guidance in the elementary school today. The debate between those advocating the use of counseling as opposed to consultation in the elementary school has plagued guidance in this setting since its conception. To reject the notion of working directly with children in a counseling relationship is to deny the counselor the use of a very effective and long established method of helping children to cope with themselves and with their environment. Child guidance centers

have for many decades worked directly with children in therapy. The methods and techniques employed in these relationships are somewhat different than those traditionally used by therapists and counselors, but their purposes are the same. However, all of the techniques are based upon the need to establish communication between the counselor and the client. For the elementary school child, the counselor may need play media through which the client can communicate. On the other hand, the counselor may be able to discuss the child's concern in the traditional manner. This depends upon the verbal ability of the child. However, it should be remembered that the vast majority of elementary school children are able to express their concerns quite well <u>if given a chance</u>. Just because a child is six years old does not mean he is unable to express himself or is unaware of his problems. All too frequently children's concerns are not considered important because the adult listening has his own biases.

Hill and Luckey (1969) describe five categories of counseling techniques which were developed by E.L. Allan. These five categories are:

1. Association techniques: The counselor asks the child to verbalize what he associates with the presented stimuli, thus giving the counselor some insight into the concerns of the child. It may be a picture to which the child is asked to respond.

2. Construction techniques: To gain an understanding of the child the counselor may ask the child to write a story or to draw something. The child will try to express himself through some activity.

3. Completion techniques: The child is asked to complete something, such as a story or a sentence.

4. Choice and ordering techniques: The techniques falling in this category involve the child's reactions to a structure stimuli such as the SRA Junior Inventory or other types of self-report instruments. In these situations the child is asked to make choices or to order their reactions.

5. Expressive techniques: In this situation the child is asked to react to an ambiguous situation in a manner which expresses his feelings. The child may use clay, paints, or other materials to express himself.

For a more extensive treatment of the counseling techniques employed when working with children it is recommended that the following books be read:

Moustakas, C. E. Psychotherapy With Children: The Living Relationship. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959.
This text representing a humanistic approach, covers topics related to child therapy. It discusses the therapists relationship with the child's parents, school, and different types of children, e.g. handicapped children.

Axline, Virginia. DIBS: In Search of Self. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1963.
This book discusses the actual evolution a therapeutic relationship with a gifted child. The uniqueness of the book can be found in the style the material is presented. A greater portion of the book is composed of typescripts of actual interviews with DIBS. It is an example of play therapy from a client-centered orientation.

Moustakas, C. E. (ed.). Existential Child Therapy: The Child's Discovery of Himself. New York: Basic Books, 1966.
This book is a collection of readings which represent the existential orientation to psychotherapy.

Ginott, H. Group Psychotherapy With Children: The Theory and Practice of Play Therapy. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.
It discusses group play therapy from a psychoanalytic point of view. It covers every aspect of the therapy relationship and also includes a section on dealing with parents of children in therapy.

These are but a few of the books which discuss counseling with children. The most important element in counseling children, as with any other type of client, is the relationship. It is the relationship between the counselor and child which is important and related to counselor effectiveness.

A therapeutic relationship is composed of the same elements no matter what age client the counselor is working with in counseling. These elements of trust, warmth, acceptance, understanding, and sensitivity are shared by all theoretical orientations. These elements combined with the recognition of each child as unique should be present in all counseling relationships, no matter if the counselor is working with adults or children.

SUMMARY

The junior and senior high school counselors can and must play role in the implementation of the guidance in the elementary school. Professionally all counselors have an investment in the development of guidance programs in the elementary schools. It is through the consulting relationship that secondary school counselors can help shape guidance programs in the elementary schools. The techniques used to implement guidance in the elementary schools may vary from those typically used in the secondary schools, the secondary school counselor can quickly learn the various methods because of his background. However, he must be committed to the concept of guidance and willing to grow professionally.

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APPENDIX A

HOW I SEE MYSELF, ELEMENTARY FORM *

DIRECTIONS:

Look at No. 1. On one side it has "Nothing gets me mad" and on the other side "I get mad easily and explode". If you feel that nothing gets you too mad most of the time you would circle the 1. If you feel that most of the time you get mad easily and explode, you would circle the 2, 3, or 4.

Look at No. 2. It is different. On one side it has "I don't stay with something till I finish". If you feel that most of the time you don't stay with things and finish them, you would circle a 1. If you feel that most of the time you do stay with things and finish you would circle a 5. If you feel you fit somewhere in between you would circle the 2, 3, or 4. It is important to see that some of these mean one thing on the left side, some of them mean another. So it is very important to think about each statement as I read it. I will answer any questions you need answered, so feel free to ask them.

Remember, we want how you yourself feel. We want you to be honest with us in your answer. Remember, it is how you feel most of the time.

1.	Nothing gets me too mad	1	2	3	4	5	I get mad easily and explode
2.	I don't stay with things and finish them	1	2	3	4	5	I stay with something till I finish
3.	I'm very good at drawing	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good in drawing
4.	I don't like to work on committees, projects	1	2	3	4	5	I like to work with others
5.	I wish I were smaller (taller)	1	2	3	4	5	I'm just the right height
6.	I worry a lot	1	2	3	4	5	I don't worry much
7.	I wish I could do something with my hair	1	2	3	4	5	My hair is nice-looking
8.	Teachers like me	1	2	3	4	5	Teachers don't like me
9.	I've lots of energy	1	2	3	4	5	I haven't much energy
10.	I don't play games very well	1	2	3	4	5	I play games very well
11.	I'm just the right weight	1	2	3	4	5	I wish I were heavier, lighter
12.	The girls don't like me, leave me out	1	2	3	4	5	The girls like me a lot, choose me
13.	I'm very good at speaking before a group	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good at speaking before a group

* Appreciation is expressed to I. Gordon for permission to reprint this scale. It is copyrighted and copies of the scale may be purchased from Dr. I. Gordon, 2900 S.W. 2nd Court, Gainesville, Florida 32601.

14.	My face is pretty (good looking)	1	2	3	4	5	I wish I were prettier (good looking)
15.	I'm very good in music	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good in music
16.	I get along well with teachers	1	2	3	4	5	I don't get along with teachers
17.	I don't like teachers	1	2	3	4	5	I like teachers very much
18.	I don't feel at ease, comfortable inside	1	2	3	4	5	I feel very at ease, comfortable inside
19.	I don't like to try new things	1	2	3	4	5	I like to try new things
20.	I have trouble controling my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	I can handle my feelings
21.	I do well in school work	1	2	3	4	5	I don't do well in school
22.	I want the boys to like me	1	2	3	4	5	I don't want the boys to like me
23.	I don't like the way I look	1	2	3	4	5	I like the way I look
24.	I don't want the girls to like me	1	2	3	4	5	I want the girls to like me
25.	I'm very healthy	1	2	3	4	5	I get sick a lot
26.	I don't dance well	1	2	3	4	5	I'm a very good dancer
27.	I write well	1	2	3	4	5	I don't write well
28.	I like to work along	1	2	3	4	5	I don't like to work alone
29.	I use my time well	1	2	3	4	5	I don't know how to plan my time
30.	I'm not much good at making things with my hands	1	2	3	4	5	I'm very good at making things with my hands
31.	I wish I could do something about my skin	1	2	3	4	5	My skin is nice looking
32.	School isn't interesting to me	1	2	3	4	5	School is very interesting
33.	I don't do arithmetic well	1	2	3	4	5	I'm real good in arithmetic
34.	I'm not as smart as the others	1	2	3	4	5	I'm smarter than most of the others
35.	The boys like me a lot, choose me	1	2	3	4	5	The boys don't like me, leave me out
36.	My clothes are not as I'd like	1	2	3	4	5	My clothes are nice
37.	I like school	1	2	3	4	5	I don't like school
38.	I wish I were built like the others	1	2	3	4	5	I'm happy with the way I am
39.	I don't read well	1	2	3	4	5	I read very well
40.	I don't learn new things easily	1	2	3	4	5	I learn new things easily

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI) *

There are two forms of the Self-Esteem Inventory: A contains 58 items and a total of five subscales, B contains 25 items and no subscales. Form A provides a general assessment of self-esteem which may be broken down into component subscales depending on the goals and interest of the tester, but which may also be used without such differentiation. Form B is briefer, does not permit further differentiation, and takes about half the administration time of Form A. The total scores of Forms A and B correlate .86, a finding which has been established to a markedly similar extent on four different samples. This is not surprising since Form B was based on an item analysis of Form A and includes those twenty-five items which showed the highest item-total score relationships of scores obtained with Form A. Validating information is presented in Coopersmith's monograph "The Antecedents of Self-Esteem" (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968).

Form A: 58 items
There are five subscales which cycle in sequence the length of the SEI. Those subscales are:

General Self	Items 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 17, etc.
Social Self-peers	Items 4, 11, 18, 25, 32, 39, 46, 53
Home-parents	Items 5, 12, 19, 26, 33, 40, 47, 54
Lie Scale	Items 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48, 55
School-academic	Items 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42, 49, 56

As noted above the subscales do not have to be scored separately with the exception of the Lie Scale. The responses indicating high self-esteem and low Lie defensive reactions are noted on the enclosed scored copies of the SEI.

The scores are reported as:

I. Total number correct of all scales excluding Lie (a maximum of 50).
II. A separate score total number of responses indicative of defensive, Lie reaction (a maximum of 8).

For convenience sake the total SEI score is multiplied by two so that maximum score is 100.

Thus SEI score	50	x 2 =	100
Lie score	8	=	8

In the event that separate subscales for a given purpose are desired, the responses are scored and noted separately in the same manner as the Lie Scale.

* Appreciation is expressed to S. Coopersmith for permission to reprint this scale.

Form B
The score is reported as a single score with a maximum of 25, indicative of high self-esteem. The number of correct responses is noted, then multiplied by four (25 x 4 = 100) providing a figure which is comparable to the Self-evaluation score obtained on Form A (excluding the Lie).

Age Range: Has been used without difficulty on a group basis with populations ranging from 9 to adult level. Older groups are not comfortable with the wording of several items which may accordingly be altered to suit the sample. College student samples have not indicated any resistance to the present wordings of these two forms. In samples with children younger than 9 or where the educational experience has not resulted in an average reading or conceptual level, rewording and/or individual administration may be required.

Sex: The two forms are used for both males and females. In most studies there were no significant differences between the esteem level of males and females tested.

Distribution: In most samples the curve is skewed in the direction of high self-esteem. The means have been in the vicinity of 70-80 and the standard deviations approximately 11-13. More specific information is reported by Coopersmith. Quite obviously there are no exact criteria of high, medium and low self-esteem. This will vary with the sample, distribution, theoretical considerations, etc. Employing position in the group as an index of relative self-appraisal, Coopersmith has employed the upper quartile as indicative of high esteem; lower quartile as indicating low esteem and the interquartile range as indicative of medium esteem.

Name_____School_____

Class_____Date_____

Please mark each statement in the following way:
If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "LIKE ME."
If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "UNLIKE ME."
There are no right or wrong answers.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
Example: I'm a hard worker.		
1. I often wish I were someone else.		
2. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.		
3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.		
4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.		
5. I'm a lot of fun to be with.		
6. I get upset easily at home.		
7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		
8. I'm popular with kids my own age.		
9. My parents usually consider my feelings.		
10. I give in very easily.		
11. My parents expect too much of me.		
12. Its pretty tough to be me.		
13. Things are all mixed up in my life.		
14. Kids usually follow my ideas.		
15. I have a low opinion of myself.		
16. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.		
17. I often feel upset in school.		
18. I'm not as nice looking as most people.		
19. If I have something to say, I usually say it.		
20. My parents understand me.		
21. Most people are better liked than I am.		
22. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.		
23. I often get discouraged in school.		
24. Things usually don't bother me.		
25. I can't be depended upon.		

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)

Please mark each statement in the following way: If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "LIKE ME." If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "UNLIKE ME."

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1. I spend a lot ot time daydreaming.		
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.		
3. I often wish I were someone else.		
4. I'm easy to like.		
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.		
6. I never worry about anything.		
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.		
8. I wish I were younger.		
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.		
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.		
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.		
12. I get upset easily at home.		
13. I always do the right thing.		
14. I'm proud of my school work.		
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.		
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.		
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.		
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.		

	LIKE ME	JNLIKE ME
20. I'm never unhappy.		
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.		
22. I give in very easily.		
23. I can usually take care of myself.		
24. I'm pretty happy.		
25. I would rather play with children younger than me.		
26. My parents expect too much of me.		
27. I like everyone I know.		
28. I like to be called on in class.		
29. I understand myself.		
30. It's pretty tough to be me.		
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.		
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.		
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.		
34. I never get scolded.		
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.		
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.		
37. I really don't like being a boy - girl.		
38. I have a low opinion of myself.		
39. I don't like to be with other people.		
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.		
41. I'm never shy.		
42. I often feel upset in school.		

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.		
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.		
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.		
46. Kids pick on my very often.		
47. My parents understand me.		
48. I always tell the truth.		
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.		
50. I don't care what happens to me.		
51. I'm a failure.		
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.		
53. Most people are better liked than I am.		
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.		
55. I always know what to say to people.		
56. I often get discouraged in school.		
57. Things usually don't bother me.		
58. I can't be depended on.		

APPENDIX C

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE BEHAVIOR RATING FORM (BRF) FOR APPRAISING ASSURED AND CONFIDENT BEHAVIORS *

There are two parts to the thirteen items of the Self-Esteem Behavior Rating Form (BRF). The first ten items provide an appraisal of behaviors that have been associated to poise, assurance and self-trust. These ten items include reactions to new situations and failure reactions to criticism and failure, self-deprecation and hesitation to express opinions publicly. The second part of three items provides an index of behaviors that are frequently defensive in nature. These include bragging, domination or bullying and attention seeking.

Each behavior is rated on a five point scale. The rating indicative of high self-esteem behavior has been varied in position from right to left, always to never, to minimize superficial response basis. The scores are obtained in the following manner.

Part I (Items 1 - 10) Self-Esteem Behavior
Total of scores obtained on items according to enclosed key. Since maximum score on each item is 5 maximum total (10x5) is 50. This total is multiplied by two to provide the convenient conventional base of 100. Ex. 32x2=64.

Part II (Items 11 - 12) Defensive Behavior
Total score of items in accord with enclosed key. Total of scores reported per se, to maximum of 15. Higher scores indicate greater defensiveness with scores of 10 or greater particularly worthy of note. Score is Defensive Behaviors (Def. Beh.).

Age: Has been used with grade and junior high school students.

Sex: Teachers tend to rate girls somewhat and significantly higher than boys. The same form of BRF is used for males and females.

Distribution: Skewed in favorable direction
Marked differences in rater
Generally employ relative position in class as index of self-esteem behavior

Validating information and other data is cited in Coopersmith's "Antecedents of Self-Esteem." (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968)

* Appreciation is expressed to S. Coopersmith for permission to reprint this scale.

BEHAVIOR RATING FORM (BRF)

1. Does this child adapt easily to new situations, feel comfortable in new settings, enter easily into new activities?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

2. Does this child hesitate to express his opinions, as evidenced by extreme caution, failure to contribute, or a subdued manner in speaking situations?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

3. Does this child become upset by failures or other strong stresses as evidenced by such behaviors as pouting, whining, or withdrawing?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

4. How often is this child chosen for activities by his classmates? Is his companionship sought for and valued?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

5. Does this child become alarmed or frightened easily? Does he become very restless or jittery when procedures are changed, exams are scheduled or strange individuals are in the room?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

6. Does this child seek much support and reassurance from his peers or the teacher, as evidenced by seeking their nearness or frequent inquiries as to whether he is doing well?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

7. When this child is scolded or criticized, does he become either very aggressive or very sullen and withdrawn?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

8. Does this child deprecate his school work, grades, activities, and work products? Does he indicate he is not doing as well as expected?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

9. Does this child show confidence and assurance in his actions toward his teachers and classmates?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

10. To what extent does this child show a sense of self-esteem, self-respect, and appreciation of his own worthiness?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

11. Does this child publicly brag or boast about his exploits?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

12. Does this child attempt to dominate or bully other children?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

13. Does this child continually seek attention, as evidenced by such behaviors as speaking out of turn and making unnecessary noises?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

APPENDIX D

BEHAVIORAL OBSERVATIONS *

CHILD'S NAME_____

AGE____SCHOOL_____GRADE____TEACHER'S NAME_____

GUIDANCE ASSISTANT_____

DATE OF OBSERVATION_____

Observational Setting Should Be Indicated.

1. CHILD'S GENERAL APPEARANCE

2. PHYSICAL COORDINATION

   a. Running and Gait

   b. Throwing

   c. Level of Physical Energy

   d. Gross Motor Coordination

1	2	3	4	5
Very poor Coord.	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Good Coord.

* Appreciation is expressed to D. Cavins and S. Romberg for permission to reprint this scale.

3. SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

a. Social Adjustment

1	2	3	4	5
Not Accepted	Tolerated By Others	Liked by Some & Disliked by Some	Accepted by Most of the Children	Accpeted by Children

b. Group Participation

1	2	3	4	5
Does Not Participate	Sometimes Participates	Often Participates	Participates Most of the Time	Very Good Participation

c. How does he relate to adults?

d. Acceptance of Authority

e. Social Independence

1	2	3	4	5
Overly Dependent	Sometimes Independent	Self-Sufficient Most of the Time	Self-Sufficient	Overly Independent

4. EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

a. How does he handle frustrations:

1	2	3	4	5
Always Becomes Disorganized	Often Disorganized	Occasionally Disorganized	Seldom Disorganized	Never Disorganized

b. When he is frustrated, does he blame himself or others?

c. Impulse Control

1	2	3	4	5
Must Seek Immed. Satisfaction	Rarely is in Control of Impulses	Sometimes Controls Impulses	Usually Controls Impulses	Is in Control Of His Impulses

5. CHILD'S NEEDS

a. Seeks Attention

Often_____How?

Sometimes_____

Never_____

b. Seeks Approval

Often_____How?

Sometimes_____

Never_____

c. Is there an apparent need to dominate in certain situations? Describe

d. Need for Achievement

1	2	3	4	5
Not Motivated	Gives Up Easily	Motivated Most of the Time	Well Motivated	Overly Motivated

6. ATTENTION

a. Distractability

1	2	3	4	5
Incapable of Concentration	Distracted Easily	Adequate Attention	Good Attention	Able to Concentrate Even Under Advrse Conditions

b. Attention Span

1	2	3	4	5
Poor		Good		Excellent

7. INTELLECTURAL ACTIVITIES

a. Classroom Participation

1	2	3	4	5
Does Not Participate in Classroom Discussions	Seldom Participates in Classroom Discussions	Participates Adequately	Participates Most of the Time	Always Participates

b. Follows Directions

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Often	Most of the Time	Always

8. QUALITY OF WORK

1	2	3	4	5
Always Poor	Often Poor Quality	Moderately Good	Consistently Good	Excellent

9. WORK HABITS (Circle if applicable)

a. Tries to complete work as quickly as possible regardless of quality.

b. Slow but makes many errors.

c. Fairly systematic in work.

d. Systematic

e. Extremely systematic

10. REQUEST INFORMATION FROM TEACHERS

a. How does he act in a new situation?

b. Leadership Ability

11. GENERAL IMPRESSIONS

APPENDIX E

RUTTER'S CHILD BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE *

Below are a series of descriptions of behavior often shown by children. If the child definitely shows the behavior described by the statement, place a cross in the box in column 3. If the child behaves somewhat according to the statement but to a lesser extent or less often, place a cross in the box in column 2. If, as far as you are aware, the child does not show the behavior, place a cross in the box in column 1. Please show one cross for each statement. Thank you.

STATEMENT	DOESN'T APPLY	APPLIES SOMEWHAT	CERTAINLY APPLIES
1. Very restless. Often running about or jumping up and down. Hardly ever still.			
2. Truants from school.			
3. Squirmy, fidgety child			
4. Often destroys own or others' belongings.			
5. Frequently fights with other children.			
6. Not much liked by other children.			
7. Often worried, worries about many things.			
8. Tends to do things on his own--rather solitary.			
9. Irritable. Is quick to fly off the handle.			
10. Often appears miserable, unhappy, tearful, or distressed.			
11. Has twitches, mannerisms, or tics of the fact or body.			
12. Frequently sucks thumb or finger.			
13. Frequently bites nails or fingers.			
14. Tends to be absent from school for trivial reasons.			
15. Is often disobedient.			
16. Has poor concentration.			
17. Tends to be fearful or afraid of new things or new situations.			
18. Fussy or overparticular child.			
19. Often tells lies.			
20. Has stolen things on one or more occasions.			
21. Has wet or soiled self at school this year.			
22. Often complains of pains or aches.			
23. Has had tears on arrival at school or has refused to come into the building this year.			
24. Has a stutter or stammer.			

	DOESN'T APPLY	APPLIES SOMEWHAT	CERTAINLY APPLIES
25. Has other speech difficulty.			
26. Bullies other children.			

How well do you know this child? Very well. Moderately well. Not very well.

Signature (Mr./Mrs./Miss).....Date.....

Other remarks.

* Appreciation is expressed to M. Rutter for permission to reprint this scale.

APPENDIX F

Name_____School_____Grade_____

THE CLASS PLAY *

Just imagine your class was going to put on a play and you are selected to direct it. Below you will see the kinds of parts that will be needed for this play. As director of the play, you have the responsibility of selecting any boy or girl in your class for any of the parts. Since many of the parts are very small, you may, if you wish, select the same boy or girl for more than one part.

THESE ARE THE PARTS

Part 1 - The hero -- someone who is good in sports and in school work. _____

Part 2 - Someone who is often mean and gets into fights a great deal (boy or girl). _____

Part 3 - The Heroine -- someone who gets along well with other boys and girls and with the teacher. _____

Part 4 - Someone who is always getting angry about little things. _____

Part 5 - Someone who could be the her's friend - a kind, helpful boy or girl. _____

Part 6 - Someone who could play the part of a bully - picks on boys and girls smaller or weaker than himself. _____

Part 7 - Someone who has a good sense of humor but is always careful not to disturb the teacher or the class. _____

Part 8 - Someone who could play the part of a person who doesn't ever say anything. _____

Part 9 - Someone who is never mean and always friendly. _____

Part 10- Someone who could act like the laziest person in the world -- never does anything. _____

Part 11- A boy or girl you would choose to be in charge when the teacher left the room. _____

Part 12- This person knows all the answers and usually works alone. _____

SECTION II

A. Which part or parts would you like to play best? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

B. Which part or parts do you think you could play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

C. Which part or parts do you think the teacher might ask you to play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

D. Which part or parts do you think most of the other kids would ask you to play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

* Appreciation is expressed to the Educational Testing Service and California Department of Education for permission to reprint this scale.

APPENDIX G

SOCIAL HISTORY OUTLINE

I. IDENTIFYING INFORMATION:

A. Name, age, race, religion, sex, national extraction

B. Description: Height, weight, features, build

C. Appearance:

II. SOURCES OF INFORMATION (Informant):

A. Who seen (Description, attitude, etc.)

B. Why seen (The relationship, e.g., client has lived with father for past 10 years)

C. Records consulted (SSE, school, court, hospital, etc.)

III. REFERRAL:

A. Source (who?--self, relative, church, agency, school, police, court, etc.)

B. Cause or Reason (Why?--what is problem?--attitude to problem?)

IV. FAMILY BACKGROUND:

A. Constellation and client's place in it,

1. Father: (Description, age, where born, siblings, where living, with them, education, occupation, health-medical and mental, religion, attitude, relationship toward the client--now and in early life, child training-discipline)

2. Mother: (Same information as under Father)

3. Siblings: (Same information as under Father)

V. PERSONALITY OF CHILD:

Developmental, personal habits, religion, type of character, where he lives and with whom?

Kind of person? Gregarious, isolate, follower, leader, modest, show-off, aggressive, timid, calm, hyperactive, responsible, or happy-go-lucky, interests, hoppies, leisure time, pets, any marked change in conduct or habits, interests or attitudes upon approaching adolescence, girl-friends--older or younger, approved or disapproved socially, strong attachment to boys, interest in religion, ambitions, run away from home, reaction to authority, fights, anything outstanding, behavior problems, habits, sexual adjustment. . .

VI. HEALTH AND MEDICAL: (General health record throughout life--ever hospitalized for either physical or mental condition; any accidents or injuries? Reaction towards any accident or injury--by self--by members of family--how adjusted)

VII. EDUCATION:

A. Achievement (what grade attained--completed--honors?)

B. Adjustment (to teachers, students--failures, special promotions, when left--why, special interests, aptitudes, difficulties)

C. Psychological tests

VIII. DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION:

A. Family generalizations

B. Impressions about the child and his problems on the basis of information given by the informant.

C. Recommendations.

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Strategies

For Implementation of Guidance in the Elementary School

Role of the Teacher

William A. Matthes

Robert L. Frank

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

In 1969 the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction published Elementary Guidance In Iowa - A Guide. Its concluding sentence was "The writers hope this handbook will be one of many publications contributing to organized programs of guidance services for all youth in Iowa's elementary schools." With this in mind and in response to many requests, this series of five monographs has been developed. They include: Models and Direction, Role of the Superintendent and School Board, Role of the Principal, Role of the Teacher, and Role of the Secondary School Counselor. Each is complete in itself. In this way, they are planned to assist all personnel of local schools in establishing organized guidance programs at the elementary school level.

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GUIDANCE SERVICES SECTION

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Child Study. 2

Informational Services 16

Teacher-Child Relationship 19

Summary. 25

References 26

INDEX OF APPENDIX

APPENDIX A: How I See Myself, Elementary Form

APPENDIX B: Self-Esteem Inventory

APPENDIX C: Behavior Rating Form

APPENDIX D: Behavioral Observations

APPENDIX E: Rutter's Child Behavior Rating Scale

APPENDIX F: The Class Play

APPENDIX G: Social History Outline

ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The significance of the teacher in the guidance program can not be overemphasized. It has been stated repeatedly that "The teacher in the elementary school is the key person in guidance." (Moser and Moser, 1963). He will have to bear the blunt of the responsibility of the guidance program, even if a counselor's services are available. The counselor's presence will not reduce the responsibilities of the classroom teacher, but in all probability will increase them. The teacher is the individual who must implement the concepts of guidance in the classroom. He must be involved in the guidance program.

The exact role of the teacher in the guidance program is dependent to a large extent upon his own abilities and the resources available. However, Hill (1965) described the teacher as functioning in the following four roles:

1. The supportive role. The teacher should understand and support the functions of the pupil personnel specialists. He implements the recommendations of the specialists.

2. The consultative role. The teacher shares his insight and knowledge with the pupil personnel specialists in attempting to create a better environment for the students.

3. The referral role. The teacher uses the referral sources which exist. This implies his active involvement in the identification of students with special needs and the follow-up.

4. The service role. The teacher actively studies children and their environment in an attempt to develop better strategies for helping students. These strategies may be counseling, consultation, or coordination of the resources.

Hill (1965) emphasizes the point that most teachers will function in the first three roles and not concentrate on the latter role. However, all four roles are important and it is imperative that we attempt to develop skills within the classroom teachers to function effectively in all four roles. This material will focus on three areas; child study, informational services, and interpersonal skills, thus enabling the classroom teacher to better function in the four roles prescribed by Hill (1965). However, it should be recognized that this material treats these three areas in a general fashion and for the classroom teacher who wants to develop some expertise in these areas we have provided some references and would recommend he explore in greater depth the material available.

CHILD STUDY

Schools were initially established to help children learn how to effectively cope with society. The child is the central concern of the faculty and staff as well as the society which created the schools. Yet one cannot help but be impressed by the lack of effort given to understanding the child. Most schools have an organized program of child study which is commonly referred to as the testing program. This program of child study usually consists of the administration of achievement tests annually and aptitude or intelligence test on a biannual basis. The results of these instruments are usually placed in the cumulative folder of each child and little effort is made to use them. The reasons commonly used for the filing of test information for posterity range from too many demands being placed upon the faculty's time to ignorance of how to use the information.

As a result of the tremendous pressures placed upon teachers to engage in other activities and a lack of understanding of test materials, teachers are forced to neglect the most important element in the educational institutions, THE CHILD. It seems imperative that we, as educators, actively engage in some organized study of the children we teach.

There are a number of principles we must recognize when we embark upon the study of children. Gibson and Higgins (1966) have identified the following ten principles which they feel should be recognized and adhered to by individuals engaged in student appraisal:

1. Each child possesses qualities which make him unique. This basic principle is one which has been accepted by educators for decades, yet our classrooms are designed for efficiency and not individual differences. If one only stops to observe each student for whom he is responsible, he will again become aware of the significance of this principle and its implications for education. The child is the result of the interaction between his heredity and his environment which suggests the complexity of assessing the individual student.
2. Variation exists not only among individuals, but also within individuals. To attempt the assessment of individuals in a broad manner is foolhardy. Individuals vary in their ability to perform different tasks and this variation should be recognized. A student may be outstanding in mathematics, but when confronted with a social studies question may perform in a mediocre manner.

3. It is impossible for continuous assessment of a child to occur; therefore, our analytical techniques can only provide a sample of behavior. Those involved in the assessment of children need to recognize that informal observations of student behavior on the playground as well as the highly structured and formal administration of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test are merely samples of behavior. This points out one of the most difficult facets of assessment, which is the acquisition of a representative sample of the child's behavior. From all of the behavior the child engages in, which is representative of the child?
4. The trait being examined is implicit in the child's behavior and not always explicit. Frequently, the trait, such as a child's self-concept or attitude towards school is inferred from observed behavior. The difficulty is knowing what the behavior indicates. All too frequently behavior of the child is interpreted in such a manner that it fits the observer's theoretical position or hypothesis and the alternatives are not examined.
5. The variation in analytical techniques is great, and seldom do two methods measure the same thing. Frequently, educators fail to realize that instruments used in appraisal vary a great deal even if they are classified in the same general category, as achievement tests or intelligence tests. Each instrument of appraisal should be examined and used for the purpose it was designed and not substituted for another instrument. The data gathered through one method cannot be interpreted by the standards established for another technique.

6. The information gathered through appraisal devices varies a great deal and is not absolute. Each instrument or method for collecting information is not one hundred percent accurate and the information gathered will vary from sampling to sampling. Therefore, do not interpret the information as absolute, because there is a standard error of measurement for every assessment technique.
7. Each appraisal technique requires a certain degree of skill and understanding on the part of the individual using it. The person using the appraisal device should have proper training in the administration and interpretation of the instrument before he uses it. He should be aware of its assets and liabilities.
8. The norms for an instrument are not standards. "Norms are simply tables of performance, not standards." (Gibson and Higgins, 1966). Norms provide a base line to which a child's performance can be compared. However, they do not tell what the potential of the child is or what the score means for that particular person.
9. The external evaluation of an individual is frequently weakened by not recognizing the individual's perceptions or feelings. Frequently, the appraisal of students does not include the feelings and perceptions of the individual which denies a valuable source of data for the appraiser. An example of this would be a student with low sociometric status who may not want more friends. He may be perfectly satisfied being an isolate in the classroom, even if the test data indicates he is a social isolate. It would be foolhardy to assume that something is wrong from using only sociometric data.

10. When engaging in appraisal one should be aware of the ethical obligations he is assuming. The behavior of the educator involved in the appraisal of children should be guided by the ethical principles established by the various professional organizations, such as the National Education Association, the American Personnel and Guidance Association, and the American Psychological Association. These guidelines have been established for the protection of children and should be examined closely before one becomes involved in appraisal.

These ten principles set forth by Gibson and Higgins (1966) assume that some other key concerns in appraisal have been resolved which should be considered at this point. First, it has been assumed that there exists reliable, valid, and practical instruments to aid in the appraisal of children. These three elements; reliability, validity, and practicality need to be considered when selecting appraisal techniques. The reliability of the instrument is essential. If you do not have a consistent measure of behavior it is difficult to determine what the sample represents. If an instrument does not measure what it is supposed to measure, then your instrument is invalid and should not be used. The following are the four common forms of validity which educators should be concerned with:

1. Predictive validity: The question one should ask when concerned about this form of validity is how well does the instrument predict to a particular criterion? If you are concerned about selecting children for more advanced sections in school you should be interested in how well the appraisal method, be it teacher ratings or intelligence test score, predicts to the success of the students in the special sections. You should want to know the predictive validity of the method.

2. Content validity: The question related to this form of validity is how well does this method represent the content areas or behavior to be evaluated? How accurately does the instrument measure the content or behavior? This form of validity is of particular importance in the area of achievement testing. One certainly would not use a test covering the History of the Natives of Western Pakistan to measure a fifth grade student's understanding of the principles of mathematics.

3. Concurrent validity: You should be concerned about this form of validity when the use of one instrument is impractical. Because of the skill and time required, the administration of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test is impractical to administer to all students, yet you want a measure of their general intelligence. Because the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test is an established method of assessing an individual's intelligence you should select an instrument which yields similar scores as the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test, but would take less time and skill. Therefore, you should be concerned with the concurrent validity of the instrument. How well does it relate to an established measure?

4. Construct validity: This form of validity is important when a person is concerned about how well an instrument represents a particular theory or system of thought. If an instrument lacks construct validity it is difficult to interpret the results in relation to a theory which explains behavior.

Furthermore, instruments should have a high degree of practicality. An instrument may be highly reliable and valid, but if it takes a great deal of time and skill to administer, score, and interpret one has to determine how practical an instrument it is.

In selecting instruments for appraisal the reliability, validity, and practicality of the method must be considered. If these are lacking, the ten principles developed by Gibson and Higgins (1966) are useless.

Second, when engaging in appraisal activities, an individual must keep his objectives in mind. If there is no relationship between the information being collected and the original purpose for appraising a particular

phenomena the process becomes meaningless. Volumes of information collected and deposited in cumulative folders are meaningless and useless because they do not contribute to the student's educational development. The collection of information must be purposeful. Also, the collection of information must be continuous and complete so the individual using the information has a complete picture of the development of the child. Nothing is more frustrating and disappointing than to have a fragmentary and incomplete picture of a child's development.

With the ten principles established by Gibson and Higgins (1966) in mind, let us examine some methods of child study. For organizational purposes the study of the child has been divided into the assessment of the child and the assessment of the child's environment. In reality it is extremely difficult if not impossible to separate the child from his environment when attempting to collect information about him.

Assessment of the Child

As educators we are concerned with the child's personal development as well as his educational development. Therefore, we are concerned with the child's cognitive development as well as his personal adjustment. The assessment of a student's cognitive abilities has long been a concern of educators. In fact it had been the prime concern of educators until the late thirties when the concept of the whole child came into existence. One only has to scan The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook (Buros, 1967) to realize the vast majority of the appraisal instruments applicable to the elementary school focus upon the assessment of the cognitive abilities of

children. The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook presents excellent reviews of appraisal instruments presently in print.

Although personal adjustment of students has become a prime concern of educators, few standardized methods of assessing an individual's adjustment have been developed. A majority of the methods used to assess an elementary school student's adjustment require a skilled psychometrist or observer to make judgments. This is in part due to the nature of the child in the elementary school and the present level of sophistication of our assessment techniques. At the present time it requires reading skills beyond the capacities of the typical elementary school child to complete many of the questionnaires used to measure an individual's personal adjustment. However, the following two instruments have been standardized and published:

> California Test of Personality: The realiability and validity of this instrument is questionable at best; however, it is one of the few available instruments at the elementary school level. There are forms for every age group from kindergarten to adulthood, but should only be used by a skilled individual and not administered in mass to students.
>
> SRA Junior Inventory: This inventory focuses upon the needs and problems of children in grades 4 through 8 and can be useful if analyzed item by item and not by the profile method originally designed for the inventory. This instrument can be used by the classroom teacher and other school personnel.

Although these are two common instruments used to assess a child's adjustment by requesting the individual to fill out a questionnaire, there are non-standardized methods which the classroom teacher may find helpful.

Gordon (1966) has developed a scale which attempts to determine how a child

views himself. It has been assumed by many and validated by research that an individual's perceptions of himself will affect his behavior. Gordon's scale, How I See Myself (Appendix A), presents a unique method of assessing a child's self-concept. Although Gordon (1966) points out that it has been used in grades 3 through 12, it has limited usefulness in working with culturally disadvantaged children. He further points out that the significance of this type of self-report instrument is not in the total score a child receives, but how he marks the items. In using an instrument of this nature, the teacher can get more insight into how a child perceives himself in different situations by examining the items rather than a total score. There does exist a relationship between how the child perceives himself and how trained observers feel the child perceives himself. There does appear to be some validity in this instrument.

Another instrument developed by Coopersmith (1968) attempts to measure a child's self-esteem. This instrument (Appendix B) measures a child's self-esteem generally and with regard to his peers, home, school, and has built into it a lie scale. Coopersmith (1968) has gathered some information suggesting this is a valid instrument. There are features which make this instrument attractive for use in the classroom. First, there are two highly related forms of this instrument which allows for a test-retest without duplication of the items. Secondly, one of the forms of this instrument gives some indication of a child's defensiveness through a lie scale. Third, this instrument does have some validity and a foundation in research.

The two instruments mentioned to this point are called self-report instruments. This means that the individual reports how he perceives himself. This technique has some obvious faults. One of the problems central to self-report instruments is the degree of truthfulness in the child's response. Except for Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory these instruments do not provide any indication of the child's truthfulness; a real concern of those who must interpret the results of these instruments. Secondly, Gordon (1966) points out that the meaningfulness of the questions and the child's answers to the questions are of key importance in self-report techniques. Frequently, the questions asked on self-report instruments are removed from the child's experience, and therefore, his responses are not meaningful.

There are numerous rating scales which can be employed by trained observers to assess the child's personality. Coopersmith (1968) has developed a rating scale which attempts to measure the same factor his Self-Esteem Inventory does. This Behavior Rating Form (BRF) (Appendix C) consists of 13 items focusing upon the child's self-esteem and his defensive behavior.

Cavins and Romberg (1968) in connection with the Deerfield, Illinois, school district have developed a behavior rating scale which could be completed by the classroom teacher. This scale, Behavioral Observations (Appendix D) focuses upon the total development of the child with a great deal of emphasis upon the child's social adjustment as well as his behavior in the classroom setting. It not only gives the observer some structure for his observations, but also provides some flexibility for

making anecdotal comments. This instrument was designed primarily for the needs of the personnel in the Deerfield School District #109 and could easily be adapted by many schools for their own purposes. The reliability and validity of instruments of this nature depend to a large extent upon the observer's skills and the purpose of the scale. If the observer is not perceptive or sensitive to children, his observations will be of little worth.

One of the common problems teachers are confronted with is when they should seek professional assistance for a child. When should a teacher refer a child because of adjustment problems? There is some research suggesting that teachers can make good judgments about behavior (Bower, 1960); however, there does exist a need to structure the observations of teachers in such a manner that others can understand the observations and use them in adapting the environment to help the child. Because deviant behavior is exhibited in the classroom (Cooper, Ryan, and Hutcheson, 1959) it is imperative that the teacher be able to recognize it. Rutter (1967) has developed a scale by which deviant behavior can be observed and reported in a structured manner. This scale (Appendix E) can be used to gather information about the child whom you believe may need professional assistance.

Another rating scale quite similar to Rutter's Child Behavior Rating Scale has been developed by Dayton and Byrne (1967) which lists twenty-four different forms of behavior which are considered deviant. Novick, Rosenfield, Bloch, and Dawson (1966) have developed a list of 237 items

describing behavior which is considered deviant. The observer simply checks whether the item is true, false, or cannot be determined. The advantage of this scale is that it can be administered to an adult, such as a parent, who knows the child well or can be completed by directly observing the child.

Assessment of the Child's Environment

The personality of the child is the result of the interaction of his inherent potential and the environment in which he exists. This section will focus upon methods whereby information about the child's peer relationships and family can be collected.

Methods of Assessing the Child's Peer Group: Traditionally peer relationships have been assessed through sociometrics. Sociometry which has evolved from the work of Jacob Moreno has become one of the most reliable and valid methods of assessing an individual's interpersonal relationships. One method used by Gronlund (1960) simply asks the students to nominate five individuals with whom they would like to sit, work, or play. After the entire class has made their nominations simply tally the selections for each member of the class. From this you can determine who is the most popular child in the group and who is least popular. A variation of this form of a sociometric test is to ask students with whom they would not like to sit, work, or play. This will give some insight as to whom is being rejected by his peers. From this data the classroom structure can be changed and made more beneficial to the child.

A variation of this method is called the "Guess-Who" technique. An example of this technique has been developed by the California State Department of Education (Appendix F). This particular form of a sociometric instrument not only gives you insight into how a child's classmates perceive him, but also provides insight into how the child perceives himself.

There are numerous textbooks available which discuss sociometrics in greater depth (Warters, 1960; Gibson and Higgins, 1966; Gronlund, 1960) and an entire journal, Sociometry, which for the past two decades has focused upon interpersonal relationships and ways to assess them. Before using the various sociometric instruments, it would be helpful to review some of the general guidelines presented by Warters (1960):

1. the questions should be stated in a clear and concise manner.

2. the confidentiality of the results should be made clear to the children so they will feel free to respond openly.

3. delay the use of negative questions, such as who they would not like to sit with, until they are accustomed to the sociometric procedure.

4. the children's nominations should be used to structure the classroom or they will not see any purpose in filling out the instrument.

Sociometric instruments are very reliable over a long period of time and are believed to be a good method for assessing the adjustment of a child on a global basis. Also, the results of sociometric instruments provide the teacher with some insight into structuring his classroom for more effective learning.

Assessment of the Family: Although the family plays a key role in the

development of a child, educators frequently are reluctant to ask parents for information about a child. We must overcome this resistance. Through child study parents will feel like they are actively participating in the child's education. This not only will improve community-school relations, but also will provide a source of information which could be used to plan the child's educational program.

A typical method used to collect information about the family environment is represented by the outline presented in Appendix G. This outline provides some structure for the collection of information through an interview with the parents of a child. There are other outlines available which might be more useful (Shertzer and Stone, 1966; Hill and Luckey, 1969; Gibson and Higgins, 1966). This technique possesses the virtue of flexibility yet is highly dependent upon the clinical skills of the interviewer and requires a great deal of time.

It should be recalled that the scale developed by Novick, Rosenfield, Bloch, and Dawson (1966) could be used to solicit information from parents about their child. Also, the Vineland Social Maturity Scale can be used in an interview setting with the child's parents to determine the degree of self-direction, self-help, communication, socialization, etc. which the child exhibits. The advantage of using this scale is in the norms which have been developed for each item. There is normative data for each item used in the Vineland Social Maturity Scale which helps in interpreting the data gained in the interview. However, the ability to administer and interpret this instrument is developed under close clinical supervision.

INFORMATIONAL SERVICES

Hill and Luckey (1969) have suggested eight guidance learnings which should be focused upon in the elementary school. Two of these guidance learnings are concerned with the child developing an understanding of his environment and human behavior. To assist in the development of an understanding of his environment and human behavior a child needs accurate and reliable information. This information deals with the world of work, education, and human behavior.

Guidance from its conception has been concerned with the vocational development of individuals. Although the need for information related to occupational choice seems more immediate at the secondary school level, research indicates that in reality a child's vocational development actually begins in the elementary school. During elementary school attitudes are formed about various occupations and children begin to develop concepts of themselves which are related to occupational choice. Many of these attitudes and perceptions of self are based on inaccurate and unreliable information. By presenting accurate, reliable information to children in the elementary school, Hoppock has suggested that the following eight purposes can be achieved:

1. Acquaint the child with his community. The child will be anxious about his environment if he does not understand it. By acquainting the child with the community he will be less anxious.

2. Encourage curiosity and exploration. By allowing the study of the world of work you perpetuate the child's natural curiosity.

3. Create an awareness of the world of work. The child's awareness of occupational opportunities will be expanded by focusing upon the world of work.

4. Develop a positive attitude toward the world of work. The child can be encouraged to develop a view of work as a useful and purposeful aspect of an individual's life.

5. Develop the child's ability to make decisions. The child will begin to explore and learn decision-making skills which are essential in making vocational plans.

6. Provide assistance for vocational planning. Help the student who has to make a vocational choice before he enters high school. The frequency of students not completing elementary school is still quite high and the likelihood of receiving guidance outside the school is quite limited.

7. Provide assistance for educational planning. Frequently, the child must make choices about his high school program which are related to a vocational choice. Information needs to be available for students placed in this situation.

8. Create an understanding of financial responsibility. Show children how they can earn money and not be dependent upon illegal activities to secure money.

The classroom teacher can involve children in everything from tours of plants to actually being employed. The number of resources available and appropriate for the elementary schools are too numerous to list; however, if one wants to examine this area in greater depth, they should consult a textbook by W. Norris, Occupational Information in the Elementary School which is published by Science Research Associates. This textbook is the only one which focuses upon the use of occupational information in the elementary school; however, Hill and Luckey (1969) present an excellent chapter in their textbook and a list of materials available for use in the elementary schools. The Oklahoma State Department of Education has developed A Guide for Developmental Vocational Guidance (1968). This

handbook which resulted from a two week workshop focusing upon vocational guidance in grades K-12 provides guidelines and suggested activities for those educators who want to incorporate vocational guidance into their curriculum.

For the classroom teacher Hoppock (1963) recommends four things:

1. Listen. If a child expresses an interest in an occupation, listen. This will support and encourage the child to examine the various occupations. A topic which receives the attention and interest of adults frequently takes on more meaning to the child.

2. Help the child get information if he wants it. Help the child in the search for information about an occupation. It is an excellent way through which research skills can be developed within a student. Allow him to explore the resources available and to discuss the occupation with someone who is associated with it. The difficulty is frequently in securing accurate and reliable information. Numerous textbooks present methods by which the information can be evaluated (Hill and Luckey, 1969; Hoppock, 1963).

3. Examine some of your attitudes and comments about occupations. Frequently, we express attitudes and opinions about various occupations through casual comments which the child detects, but to which we pay little attention. As a teacher, your opinions mean a great deal and can shape a child's behavior.

4. Be familiar with the occupational information you teach. To teach false information is worse than not teaching anything. Be sure of the accuracy of the information you teach before you teach it. Hoppock (1963) describes various methods of teaching occupations which would be helpful to a teacher designing units to cover this area.

The guidance movement is not only concerned about the vocational development of children, but also about the child's personal development. It is the purpose of guidance to develop within children self-understanding as well as understanding of others. The materials prepared by Ralph Ojemann (1958) are designed to create self-understanding and understanding of

others within children. Ojemann and his associates have developed a series of materials for the elementary schools which focus upon human relations and the causes of human behavior. There are other sources of material which relate to this topic. The National Education Association has published a series entitled Unfinished Stories for Use in the Classroom which can be used to stimulate discussion of human behavior among children. Also, Science Research Associates publishes materials entitled Social Science Laboratory Units (Lippitt, Fox, Schaible, 1968) which can be used in grades 4, 5, & 6. This material represents a seven-unit series designed to deal with the dynamics of human relations. It deals with the areas of friendly and unfriendly behavior, understanding people who are different, group dynamics, growing up, influence as social power, and decision-making. These are but a few of the resources available which will aid the classroom teacher in developing self-understanding and understanding of others within the children.

TEACHER-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

The climate of the classroom is considered more important in the elementary school than the secondary school by many educators (Kaplan, 1959). The creation of the appropriate climate within the classroom is viewed as the most important element in a child's educational development. If the classroom is filled with threat, punishment, hostility, and a general lack of acceptance of the child, his attitudes toward education, others, and more importantly himself, will become distorted and inhibit his functioning. The creation of the appropriate climate within the classroom is dependent

upon many factors which interact with each other. The factors influencing the classroom climate are represented in Figure 1.

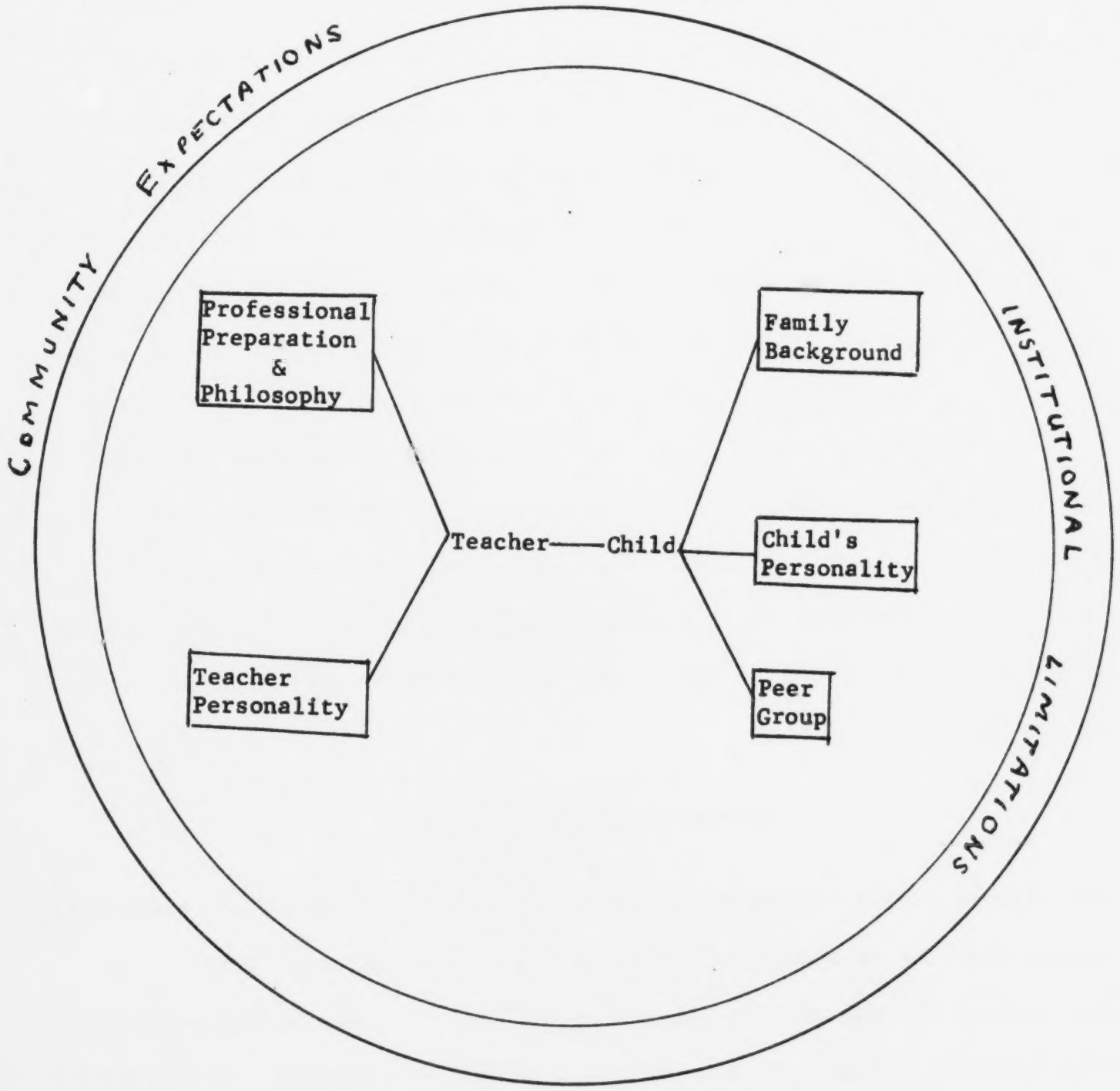

Figure 1: Elements in Teacher-Child Interaction

It should be emphasized that what occurs to create a climate in the classroom is the interaction of these factors. Each factor helps to shape the various elements in the classroom and in turn is influenced. The personality and behavior of the teacher are influenced by the school administration's policies and by the child. As a result of the teacher's interaction with these elements, his behavior is influenced and frequently changed. This change in the teacher in turn influences the other elements. In reality the classroom environment is in a constant state of flux, as a result of his continuous interaction. However, to better understand the classroom climate, Figure 2 has been developed. In this figure, three typical classroom climates are represented and described on various dimensions. These typical classroom climates are referred to as authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire.

Figure 2

Comparison of Authoritarian, Democratic, and Laissez-Faire Classrooms on Key Dimensions of Leadership, Communication Control, and Atmosphere

	Authoritarian	Democratic	Laissez-Faire
Dimension			
Leadership	The teacher is appointed by power outside the group	Leadership is discussed and frequently shared by the teacher & students	Total freedom with little leadership imposed from outside the group
Communication	All communication directed through the teacher	Communication channels open among all members but with direction	Free communication

Dimension	Authoritarian	Democratic	Laissez-Faire
Control	The teacher controls the direction the class will take	All members, including the teacher, share in the planning of activities	The teacher only reacts when asked to react
Atmosphere	The class members compete and do not cooperate	A sense of cooperation exists among the class members	No group identity exists

White and Lippitt (1960) conducted a classic experiment to compare the effects of the three structures, authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire, on the behavior of the participants. These participants, ten-year-old males, behaved quite differently in the various groups. When placed in a group with a laissez-faire atmosphere not only was less work completed, but also the work which was completed was of a poor quality. Although the participants expressed a desire for a democratic structure, as opposed to the other groups the quantity of work done in the authoritarian group was slightly greater. However, the motivation was higher among the participants in the democratic group and they exhibited more originality. The authoritarian structure produced more hostility and greater demands for attention. This combined with the discontent among the participants in the authoritarian group and the increased dependence with less individuality might stimulate teachers to examine their own behavior in the classroom. If hostility among the children in the classroom exists and less individuality is found, the teacher should examine his own behavior. The structure of the classroom may be producing this behavior. The results of the White

and Lippitt study (1960) support the simple principle of ego-involvement which is one of the most effective methods of producing change in children. If children feel that they have some responsibility for what is occurring, results such as those found in the democratic group are more likely to occur. There will be more cooperation, more group-mindedness, stronger motivation, less discontent, and more originality among the children if the principle of ego-involvement in the classroom is implemented. Schmuck, Chesler, and Lippitt (1966) have suggested the following techniques to improve the classroom atmosphere:

1. Form small, self-directing work groups which could be based upon friendship, mutual academic needs, or common interests.

2. Allow the students to become involved in planning and preparing subject matter for their classmates.

3. Allow the students to develop their method of controlling the class. Make the students responsible for the discipline in the class.

4. Allow the students to engage in group as well as individual self-evaluation and allow them to feedback these evaluations to those concerned. It would be especially beneficial if you would allow students to give you feedback on your behavior.

Furthermore, if a teacher desires to create a democratic classroom atmosphere he could do the following:

1. Develop an atmosphere of warmth and understanding which would possess a proper balance between freedom and discipline.

2. Offer emotional support to your students. Greater emphasis should be placed on praise, reassurance and encouragement than on criticism.

3. Recognize and accept the normal developmental stages through which students must progress in order to attain maturity. We might realize that all individuals must progress through a stage, but the child feels it is only happening to him.

No matter which type of classroom climate the teacher creates, he does make assumptions about the learning process and the capabilities of the learner. The teacher who structures the classroom in an authoritarian manner assumes that concepts are assimulated best through an explanation to the child. The child learns best by being told what the teacher believes he should know. In this situation the teacher assumes his judgments are superior to those which the children could make and reinforces those decisions through both rewards and punishment. The teacher prescribes the goals and the methods of achieving them. He is totally responsible for the child's education. However, a teacher who functions from a democratic frame of reference in the classroom assumes that learning occurs when the individual is involved in the learning process. He also assumes that children should share in the responsibility for their education and help provide direction to the learning process. It is assumed that the individual has the capabilities of being self-directing. The teacher who operates in a laissez-faire classroom acts more as a resource person for the children. It is assumed under these circumstances that children can provide their own direction and that structure provided by an external source will actually interfere with the child's development.

If a teacher assumes an authoritarian position he is denying children the opportunity to assume responsibility and take part in decision-making, which are basic to the goals of guidance. Furthermore, if he, the teacher, assumes a laissez-faire position he denies the meaning of experience and operates on a trial and error basis. Not only is it inefficient to assume

this position, but it also denies the children a model, the teacher, from whom they could learn democratic behavior. In reality, the democratic manner of conducting a classroom is most likely to facilitate the achievement of the goals of guidance. It should not be just a token democracy which is initiated only during certain periods of the child's educational program, but should be developmental in nature. The child should learn the basic principles of democracy in grade one if not before that time. It is imperative that the teacher honestly examine his behavior to insure the incorporation of democracy in the classroom.

SUMMARY

The classroom teacher is a key element within a guidance program. It is his behavior in relation with children which is significant. Although this material emphasized child study and information services the most important role the teacher can play is in creating the type of classroom atmosphere which will facilitate the development of the whole child. It is important that the teacher examine his classroom atmosphere in relation to the types of human relationships it creates and his objectives. There is a clear relationship between the type of human relationships which exist in a classroom and the degree of productivity. Your relationship with the children is the key to their development.

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APPENDIX A

HOW I SEE MYSELF, ELEMENTARY FORM *

DIRECTIONS:

Look at No. 1. On one side it has "Nothing gets me mad" and on the other side "I get mad easily and explode". If you feel that nothing gets you too mad most of the time you would circle the 1. If you feel that most of the time you get mad easily and explode, you would circle the 2, 3, or 4.

Look at No. 2. It is different. On one side it has "I don't stay with something till I finish". If you feel that most of the time you don't stay with things and finish them, you would circle a 1. If you feel that most of the time you do stay with things and finish you would circle a 5. If you feel you fit somewhere in between you would circle the 2, 3, or 4. It is important to see that some of these mean one thing on the left side, some of them mean another. So it is very important to think about each statement as I read it. I will answer any questions you need answered, so feel free to ask them.

Remember, we want how you yourself feel. We want you to be honest with us in your answer. Remember, it is how you feel most of the time.

1.	Nothing gets me too mad	1	2	3	4	5	I get mad easily and explode
2.	I don't stay with things and finish them	1	2	3	4	5	I stay with something till I finish
3.	I'm very good at drawing	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good in drawing
4.	I don't like to work on committees, projects	1	2	3	4	5	I like to work with others
5.	I wish I were smaller (taller)	1	2	3	4	5	I'm just the right height
6.	I worry a lot	1	2	3	4	5	I don't worry much
7.	I wish I could do some thing with my hair	1	2	3	4	5	My hair is nice-looking
8.	Teachers like me	1	2	3	4	5	Teachers don't like me
9.	I've lots of energy	1	2	3	4	5	I haven't much energy
10.	I don't play games very well	1	2	3	4	5	I play games very well
11.	I'm just the right weight	1	2	3	4	5	I wish I were heavier, lighter
12.	The girls don't like me, leave me out	1	2	3	4	5	The girls like me a lot, choose me
13.	I'm very good at speaking before a group	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good at speaking before a group

* Appreciation is expressed to I. Gordon for permission to reprint this scale. It is copyrighted and copies of the scale may be purchased from Dr. I. Gordon, 2900 S.W. 2nd Court, Gainesville, Florida 32601.

14.	My face is pretty (good looking)	1	2	3	4	5	I wish I were prettier (good looking)
15.	I'm very good in music	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good in music
16.	I get along well with teachers	1	2	3	4	5	I don't get along with teachers
17.	I don't like teachers	1	2	3	4	5	I like teachers very much
18.	I don't feel at ease, comfortable inside	1	2	3	4	5	I feel very at ease, comfortable inside
19.	I don't like to try new things	1	2	3	4	5	I like to try new things
20.	I have trouble controling my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	I can handle my feelings
21.	I do well in school work	1	2	3	4	5	I don't do well in school
22.	I want the boys to like me	1	2	3	4	5	I don't want the boys to like me
23.	I don't like the way I look	1	2	3	4	5	I like the way I look
24.	I don't want the girls to like me	1	2	3	4	5	I want the girls to like me
25.	I'm very healthy	1	2	3	4	5	I get sick a lot
26.	I don't dance well	1	2	3	4	5	I'm a very good dancer
27.	I write well	1	2	3	4	5	I don't write well
28.	I like to work along	1	2	3	4	5	I don't like to work alone
29.	I use my time well	1	2	3	4	5	I don't know how to plan my time
30.	I'm not much good at making things with my hands	1	2	3	4	5	I'm very good at making things with my hands
31.	I wish I could do something about my skin	1	2	3	4	5	My skin is nice looking
32.	School isn't interesting to me	1	2	3	4	5	School is very interesting
33.	I don't do arithmetic well	1	2	3	4	5	I'm real good in arithmetic
34.	I'm not as smart as the others	1	2	3	4	5	I'm smarter than most of the others
35.	The boys like me a lot, choose me	1	2	3	4	5	The boys don't like me, leave me out
36.	My clothes are not as I'd like	1	2	3	4	5	My clothes are nice
37.	I like school	1	2	3	4	5	I don't like school
38.	I wish I were built like the others	1	2	3	4	5	I'm happy with the way I am
39.	I don't read well	1	2	3	4	5	I read very well
40.	I don't learn new things easily	1	2	3	4	5	I learn new things easily

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI) *

There are two forms of the Self-Esteem Inventory: A contains 58 items and a total of five subscales, B contains 25 items and no subscales. Form A provides a general assessment of self-esteem which may be broken down into component subscales depending on the goals and interest of the tester, but which may also be used without such differentiation. Form B is briefer, does not permit further differentiation, and takes about half the administration time of Form A. The total scores of Forms A and B correlate .86, a finding which has been established to a markedly similar extent on four different samples. This is not surprising since Form B was based on an item analysis of Form A and includes those twenty-five items which showed the highest item-total score relationships of scores obtained with Form A. Validating information is presented in Coopersmith's monograph "The Antecedents of Self-Esteem" (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968).

Form A: 58 items
There are five subscales which cycle in sequence the length of the SEI. Those subscales are:

General Self	Items 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 17, etc.
Social Self-peers	Items 4, 11, 18, 25, 32, 39, 46, 53
Home-parents	Items 5, 12, 19, 26, 33, 40, 47, 54
Lie Scale	Items 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48, 55
School-academic	Items 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42, 49, 56

As noted above the subscales do not have to be scored separately with the exception of the Lie Scale. The responses indicating high self-esteem and low Lie defensive reactions are noted on the enclosed scored copies of the SEI.

The scores are reported as:

I. Total number correct of all scales excluding Lie (a maximum of 50).
II. A separate score total number of responses indicative of defensive, Lie reaction (a maximum of 8).

For convenience sake the total SEI score is multiplied by two so that maximum score is 100.

Thus SEI score 50 x 2 = 100
Lie score 8 = 8

In the event that separate subscales for a given purpose are desired, the responses are scored and noted separately in the same manner as the Lie Scale.

* Appreciation is expressed to S. Coopersmith for permission to reprint this scale.

Form B
The score is reported as a single score with a maximum of 25, indicative of high self-esteem. The number of correct responses is noted, then multiplied by four (25 x 4 = 100) providing a figure which is comparable to the Self-evaluation score obtained on Form A (excluding the Lie).

Age Range: Has been used without difficulty on a group basis with populations ranging from 9 to adult level. Older groups are not comfortable with the wording of several items which may accordingly be altered to suit the sample. College student samples have not indicated any resistance to the present wordings of these two forms. In samples with children younger than 9 or where the educational experience has not resulted in an average reading or conceptual level, rewording and/or individual administration may be required.

Sex: The two forms are used for both males and females. In most studies there were no significant differences between the esteem level of males and females tested.

Distribution: In most samples the curve is skewed in the direction of high self-esteem. The means have been in the vicinity of 70-80 and the standard deviations approximately 11-13. More specific information is reported by Coopersmith. Quite obviously there are no exact criteria of high, medium and low self-esteem. This will vary with the sample, distribution, theoretical considerations, etc. Employing position in the group as an index of relative self-appraisal, Coopersmith has employed the upper quartile as indicative of high esteem; lower quartile as indicating low esteem and the interquartile range as indicative of medium esteem.

Name_____School_____

Class_____Date_____

Please mark each statement in the following way:

If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "LIKE ME."

If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "UNLIKE ME."

There are no right or wrong answers.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
Example: I'm a hard worker._____		
1. I often wish I were someone else._____		
2. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class._____		
3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could._____		
4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble._____		
5. I'm a lot of fun to be with._____		
6. I get upset easily at home._____		
7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new._____		
8. I'm popular with kids my own age._____		
9. My parents usually consider my feelings._____		
10. I give in very easily._____		
11. My parents expect too much of me._____		
12. Its pretty tough to be me._____		
13. Things are all mixed up in my life._____		
14. Kids usually follow my ideas._____		
15. I have a low opinion of myself._____		
16. There are many times when I'd like to leave home._____		
17. I often feel upset in school._____		
18. I'm not as nice looking as most people._____		
19. If I have something to say, I usually say it._____		
20. My parents understand me._____		
21. Most people are better liked than I am._____		
22. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me._____		
23. I often get discouraged in school._____		
24. Things usually don't bother me._____		
25. I can't be depended upon._____		

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)

Please mark each statement in the following way: If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "LIKE ME." If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "UNLIKE ME."

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1. I spend a lot ot time daydreaming.		
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.		
3. I often wish I were someone else.		
4. I'm easy to like.		
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.		
6. I never worry about anything.		
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.		
8. I wish I were younger.		
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.		
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.		
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.		
12. I get upset easily at home.		
13. I always do the right thing.		
14. I'm proud of my school work.		
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.		
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.		
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.		
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.		

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
20. I'm never unhappy.		
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.		
22. I give in very easily.		
23. I can usually take care of myself.		
24. I'm pretty happy.		
25. I would rather play with children younger than me.		
26. My parents expect too much of me.		
27. I like everyone I know.		
28. I like to be called on in class.		
29. I understand myself.		
30. It's pretty tough to be me.		
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.		
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.		
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.		
34. I never get scolded.		
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.		
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.		
37. I really don't like being a boy - girl.		
38. I have a low opinion of myself.		
39. I don't like to be with other people.		
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.		
41. I'm never shy.		
42. I often feel upset in school.		

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.		
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.		
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.		
46. Kids pick on my very often.		
47. My parents understand me.		
48. I always tell the truth.		
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.		
50. I don't care what happens to me.		
51. I'm a failure.		
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.		
53. Most people are better liked than I am.		
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.		
55. I always know what to say to people.		
56. I often get discouraged in school.		
57. Things usually don't bother me.		
58. I can't be depended on.		

APPENDIX C

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE BEHAVIOR RATING FORM (BRF) FOR APPRAISING ASSURED AND CONFIDENT BEHAVIORS *

There are two parts to the thirteen items of the Self-Esteem Behavior Rating Form (BRF). The first ten items provide an appraisal of behaviors that have been associated to poise, assurance and self-trust. These ten items include reactions to new situations and failure reactions to criticism and failure, self-deprecation and hesitation to express opinions publicly. The second part of three items provides an index of behaviors that are frequently defensive in nature. These include bragging, domination or bullying and attention seeking.

Each behavior is rated on a five point scale. The rating indicative of high self-esteem behavior has been varied in position from right to left, always to never, to minimize superficial response basis. The scores are obtaine in the following manner.

Part I (Items 1 - 10) Self-Esteem Behavior
Total of scores obtained on items according to enclosed key. Since maximum score on each item is 5 maximum total (10x5) is 50. This total is multiplied by two to provide the convenient conventional base of 100. Ex. 32x2=64.

Part II (Items 11 - 12) Defensive Behavior
Total score of items in accord with enclosed key. Total of scores reported per se, to maximum of 15. Higher scores indicate greater defensiveness with scores of 10 or greater particularly worthy of note. Score is Defensive Behaviors (Def. Beh.).

Age: Has been used with grade and junior high school students.

Sex: Teachers tend to rate girls somewhat and significantly higher than boys. The same form of BRF is used for males and females.

Distribution: Skewed in favorable direction
Marked differences in rater
Generally employ relative position in class as index of self-esteem behavior

Validating information and other data is cited in Coopersmith's "Antecedents of Self-Esteem." (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968)

* Appreciation is expressed to S. Coopersmith for permission to reprint this scale.

BEHAVIOR RATING FORM (BRF)

1. Does this child adapt easily to new situations, feel comfortable in new settings, enter easily into new activities?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

2. Does this child hesitate to express his opinions, as evidenced by extreme caution, failure to contribute, or a subdued manner in speaking situations?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

3. Does this child become upset by failures or other strong stresses as evidenced by such behaviors as pouting, whining, or withdrawing?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

4. How often is this child chosen for activities by his classmates? Is his companionship sought for and valued?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

5. Does this child become alarmed or frightened easily? Does he become very restless or jittery when procedures are changed, exams are scheduled or strange individuals are in the room?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

6. Does this child seek much support and reassurance from his peers or the teacher, as evidenced by seeking their nearness or frequent inquiries as to whether he is doing well?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

7. When this child is scolded or criticized, does he become either very aggressive or very sullen and withdrawn?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

8. Does this child deprecate his school work, grades, activities, and work products? Does he indicate he is not doing as well as expected?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

9. Does this child show confidence and assurance in his actions toward his teachers and classmates?

_____always _____usually _____sometimes _____seldom _____never
(5) (4) (3) (2) (1)

10. To what extent does this child show a sense of self-esteem, self-respect, and appreciation of his own worthiness?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

11. Does this child publicly brag or boast about his exploits?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

12. Does this child attempt to dominate or bully other children?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

13. Does this child continually seek attention, as evidenced by such behaviors as speaking out of turn and making unnecessary noises?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

APPENDIX D

BEHAVIORAL OBSERVATIONS *

CHILD'S NAME_____

AGE____SCHOOL_____GRADE____TEACHER'S NAME_____

GUIDANCE ASSISTANT_____

DATE OF OBSERVATION_____

Observational Setting Should Be Indicated.

1. CHILD'S GENERAL APPEARANCE

2. PHYSICAL COORDINATION

   a. Running and Gait

   b. Throwing

   c. Level of Physical Energy

   d. Gross Motor Coordination

1	2	3	4	5
Very poor Coord.	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Good Coord.

* Appreciation is expressed to D. Cavins and S. Romberg for permission to reprint this scale.

3. SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

a. Social Adjustment

1	2	3	4	5
Not Accepted	Tolerated By Others	Liked by Some & Disliked by Some	Accepted by Most of the Children	Accpeted by Children

b. Group Participation

1	2	3	4	5
Does Not Participate	Sometimes Participates	Often Participates	Participates Most of the Time	Very Good Participation

c. How does he relate to adults?

d. Acceptance of Authority

e. Social Independence

1	2	3	4	5
Overly Dependent	Sometimes Independent	Self-Sufficient Most of the Time	Self-Sufficient	Overly Independent

4. EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

a. How does he handle frustrations:

1	2	3	4	5
Always Becomes Disorganized	Often Disorganized	Occasionally Disorganized	Seldom Disorganized	Never Disorganized

b. When he is frustrated, does he blame himself or others?

c. Impulse Control

1	2	3	4	5
Must Seek Immed. Satisfaction	Rarely is in Control of Impulses	Sometimes Controls Impulses	Usually Controls Impulses	Is in Control Of His Impulses

5. CHILD'S NEEDS

a. Seeks Attention

Often_____How?

Sometimes_____

Never_____

b. Seeks Approval

Often_____How?

Sometimes_____

Never_____

c. Is there an apparent need to dominate in certain situations? Describe

d. Need for Achievement

1	2	3	4	5
Not Motivated	Gives Up Easily	Motivated Most of the Time	Well Motivated	Overly Motivated

6. ATTENTION

a. Distractability

1	2	3	4	5
Incapable of Concentration	Distracted Easily	Adequate Attention	Good Attention	Able to Concentrate Even Under Advrse Conditions

b. Attention Span

1	2	3	4	5
Poor		Good		Excellent

7. INTELLECTURAL ACTIVITIES

a. Classroom Participation

1	2	3	4	5
Does Not Participate in Classroom Discussions	Seldom Participates in Classroom Discussions	Participates Adequately	Participates Most of the Time	Always Participates

b. Follows Directions

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Often	Most of the Time	Always

8. QUALITY OF WORK

1	2	3	4	5
Always Poor	Often Poor Quality	Moderately Good	Consistently Good	Excellent

9. WORK HABITS (Circle if applicable)

a. Tries to complete work as quickly as possible regardless of quality.

b. Slow but makes many errors.

c. Fairly systematic in work.

d. Systematic

e. Extremely systematic

10. REQUEST INFORMATION FROM TEACHERS

a. How does he act in a new situation?

b. Leadership Ability

11. GENERAL IMPRESSIONS

APPENDIX E

RUTTER'S CHILD BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE *

Below are a series of descriptions of behavior often shown by children. If the child definitely shows the behavior described by the statement, place a cross in the box in column 3. If the child behaves somewhat according to the statement but to a lesser extent or less often, place a cross in the box in column 2. If, as far as you are aware, the child does not show the behavior, place a cross in the box in column 1. Please show one cross for each statement. Thank you.

STATEMENT	DOESN'T APPLY	APPLIES SOMEWHAT	CERTAINLY APPLIES
1. Very restless. Often running about or jumping up and down. Hardly ever still.			
2. Truants from school.			
3. Squirmy, fidgety child			
4. Often destroys own or others' belongings.			
5. Frequently fights with other children.			
6. Not much liked by other children.			
7. Often worried, worries about many things.			
8. Tends to do things on his own--rather solitary.			
9. Irritable. Is quick to fly off the handle.			
10. Often appears miserable, unhappy, tearful, or distressed.			
11. Has twitches, mannerisms, or tics of the fact or body.			
12. Frequently sucks thumb or finger.			
13. Frequently bites nails or fingers.			
14. Tends to be absent from school for trivial reasons.			
15. Is often disobedient.			
16. Has poor concentration.			
17. Tends to be fearful or afraid of new things or new situations.			
18. Fussy or overparticular child.			
19. Often tells lies.			
20. Has stolen things on one or more occasions.			
21. Has wet or soiled self at school this year.			
22. Often complains of pains or aches.			
23. Has had tears on arrival at school or has refused to come into the building this year.			
24. Has a stutter or stammer.			

	DOESN'T APPLY	APPLIES SOMEWHAT	CERTAINLY APPLIES
25. Has other speech difficulty.			
26. Bullies other children.			

How well do you know this child? Very well. Moderately well. Not very well.

Signature (Mr./Mrs./Miss).....Date.....

Other remarks.

* Appreciation is expressed to M. Rutter for permission to reprint this scale.

APPENDIX F

Name_____School_____Grade_____

THE CLASS PLAY *

Just imagine your class was going to put on a play and you are selected to direct it. Below you will see the kinds of parts that will be needed for this play. As director of the play, you have the responsibility of selecting any boy or girl in your class for any of the parts. Since many of the parts are very small, you may, if you wish, select the same boy or girl for more than one part.

THESE ARE THE PARTS

Part 1 - The hero -- someone who is good in sports and in school work. _____

Part 2 - Someone who is often mean and gets into fights a great deal (boy or girl). _____

Part 3 - The Heroine -- someone who gets along well with other boys and girls and with the teacher. _____

Part 4 - Someone who is always getting angry about little things. _____

Part 5 - Someone who could be the her's friend - a kind, helpful boy or girl. _____

Part 6 - Someone who could play the part of a bully - picks on boys and girls smaller or weaker than himself. _____

Part 7 - Someone who has a good sense of humor but is always careful not to disturb the teacher or the class. _____

Part 8 - Someone who could play the part of a person who doesn't ever say anything. _____

Part 9 - Someone who is never mean and always friendly._____

Part 10- Someone who could act like the laziest person in the world -- never does anything. _____

Part 11- A boy or girl you would choose to be in charge when the teacher left the room. _____

Part 12- This person knows all the answers and usually works alone. _____

SECTION II

A. Which part or parts would you like to play best? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

B. Which part or parts do you think you could play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

C. Which part or parts do you think the teacher might ask you to play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

D. Which part or parts do you think most of the other kids would ask you to play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

* Appreciation is expressed to the Educational Testing Service and California Department of Education for permission to reprint this scale.

APPENDIX G

SOCIAL HISTORY OUTLINE

I. IDENTIFYING INFORMATION:

A. Name, age, race, religion, sex, national extraction

B. Description: Height, weight, features, build

C. Appearance:

II. SOURCES OF INFORMATION (Informant):

A. Who seen (Description, attitude, etc.)

B. Why seen (The relationship, e.g., client has lived with father for past 10 years)

C. Records consulted (SSE, school, court, hospital, etc.)

III. REFERRAL:

A. Source (who?--self, relative, church, agency, school, police, court, etc.)

B. Cause or Reason (Why?--what is problem?--attitude to problem?)

IV. FAMILY BACKGROUND:

A. Constellation and client's place in it,

1. Father: (Description, age, where born, siblings, where living, with them, education, occupation, health-medical and mental, religion, attitude, relationship toward the client--now and in early life, child training-discipline)

2. Mother: (Same information as under Father)

3. Siblings: (Same information as under Father)

V. PERSONALITY OF CHILD:

Developmental, personal habits, religion, type of character, where he lives and with whom?

Kind of person? Gregarious, isolate, follower, leader, modest, show-off, aggressive, timid, calm, hyperactive, responsible, or happy-go-lucky, interests, hoppies, leisure time, pets, any marked change in conduct or habits, interests or attitudes upon approaching adolescence, girl-friends--older or younger, approved or disapproved socially, strong attachment to boys, interest in religion, ambitions, run away from home, reaction to authority, fights, anything outstanding, behavior problems, habits, sexual adjustment. . .

VI. HEALTH AND MEDICAL: (General health record throughout life--ever hospitalized for either physical or mental condition; any accidents or injuries? Reaction towards any accident or injury--by self--by members of family--how adjusted)

VII. EDUCATION:

A. Achievement (what grade attained--completed--honors?)

B. Adjustment (to teachers, students--failures, special promotions, when left--why, special interests, aptitudes, difficulties)

C. Psychological tests

VIII. DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION:

A. Family generalizations

B. Impressions about the child and his problems on the basis of information given by the informant.

C. Recommendations.

ED048602

Strategies

For Implementation of Guidance in the Elementary School

Role of the Principal

William A. Matthes

Robert L. Frank

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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FOREWORD

In 1969 the Iowa State Department of Public Instruction published Elementary Guidance In Iowa - A Guide. Its concluding sentence was "The writers hope this handbook will be one of many publications contributing to organized programs of guidance services for all youth in Iowa's elementary schools." With this in mind and in response to many requests, this series of five monographs has been developed. They include: Models and Direction, Role of the Superintendent and School Board, Role of the Principal, Role of the Teacher, and Role of the Secondary School Counselor. Each is complete in itself. In this way, they are planned to assist all personnel of local schools in establishing organized guidance programs at the elementary school level.

A special thanks of appreciation is given to the authors, Dr. William A. Matthes, Assistant Professor of Education, Division of Counselor Education, The University of Iowa, and Dr. Robert L. Frank, Associate Professor of Education and Psychology, Counselor Education, University of Northern Iowa.

GUIDANCE SERVICES SECTION

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Organizational Change. 5

Questions Related to the Implementation of Guidance Programs in the Elementary Schools 12

Basis for Implementation of a Child Study Program and Information Services 16

Child Study 16
Informational Services. 25

Summary. 28

References 29

INDEX OF APPENDIX

APPENDIX A: How I See Myself, Elementary Form

APPENDIX B: Self-Esteem Inventory

APPENDIX C: Behavior Rating Form

APPENDIX D: Behavioral Observations

APPENDIX E: Rutter's Child Behavior Rating Scale

APPENDIX F: The Class Play

APPENDIX G: Social History Outline

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Organizational Change. 5

Questions Related to the Implementation of Guidance Programs in the Elementary Schools 12

Basis for Implementation of a Child Study Program and Information Services 16

Child Study 16
Informational Services. 25

Summary. 28

References 29

INDEX OF APPENDIX

APPENDIX A: How I See Myself, Elementary Form

APPENDIX B: Self-Esteem Inventory

APPENDIX C: Behavior Rating Form

APPENDIX D: Behavioral Observations

APPENDIX E: Rutter's Child Behavior Rating Scale

APPENDIX F: The Class Play

APPENDIX G: Social History Outline

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

To assume that no guidance programs exist in the elementary schools across the nation is naive. The fact that educators have been providing guidance services to children in the elementary schools for decades is quite obvious. When principals observe their staffs administering achievement tests, meeting with groups of parents to discuss their children, or spending time counseling children they are witnessing a form of guidance. However, the organization and effectiveness of these procedures is open to debate. Frequently, guidance services, the effectiveness of which is dependent upon the skills and knowledge of the teacher, are provided only when the teacher's schedule will allow. Guidance is viewed by many as an ancillary aspect of the child's development. Guidance is something we do <u>after</u> reading, writing, and arithmetic when it should be a part of the total educational program. The goals of guidance are quite similar to those of the curriculum. Guidance like an effective curriculum was conceived to develop each child. It is designed to create responsible and thoughtful citizens for our society. Yet many of the guidance activities designed to change the organization to better meet the needs of the child are disregarded. Test information which could be used to diagnose learning difficulties among the students is frequently filed away for posterity. Knowledge about child development and the socialization

process is not considered when learning experiences are designed. Few attempts are made to create within students an awareness and understanding of what is occurring within themselves and others. The vast majority of the elementary schools across the State of Iowa have not developed truly comprehensive and effective guidance programs. The leadership which elementary school principals can provide is essential if guidance is to become a reality within the elementary schools of Iowa.

The role of the elementary school principal in implementing guidance has received little attention in professional literature and should be examined in greater depth. The following is a brief delineation of the principal's role in the implementation of a guidance program (Shertzer & Stone, 1966):

1. provision of an adequate number of prepared counselors: The principal should be actively involved in the selection of counselors who will function in his building. Although the individual selected may be an outstanding counselor his effectiveness will be limited if he is responsible for too many students. To ensure maximum effectiveness of the counselor the principal should control the counselor to student ratio.

2. staff members should have a clear understanding of their role in the guidance program and should be able to function in that role: It is the responsibility of the principal to clearly identify each staff member's role and to evaluate each member's effectiveness in that role. If an individual is not effective in his role some assistance should be provided.

3. the principal should delegate the responsibility for administering the guidance program to prepared individuals: It is impossible for an individual to assume responsibility for every program in his building and therefore he should delegate the responsibilities to someone adequately prepared.

4. adequate materials and facilities should be provided: It is extremely difficult for a program to function without the necessary supplies and facilities which help facilitate the program.

5. support and encourage the guidance program: If the principal does not support the guidance program the chances of it being effective are indeed slim.

6. opportunities for group guidance activities should be scheduled: The principal should make provisions in the schedule for group activities designed to achieve the objectives of guidance.

7. an advisory and policy-recommending body such as a school guidance committee should be created: The principal can achieve two things through a guidance committee; 1) the teachers will become more involved, 2) information and direction for the guidance program can evolve from such a committee.

8. create opportunities for in-service education for the staff: There are numerous methods which can be used in in-service education; however, they all need the administration's enthusiastic support.

9. support and encourage efforts to evaluate the guidance program: It is essential that educational programs be continually evaluated and examined in relation to their goals. The information necessary for evaluation should be continually collected.

10. coordination of the guidance program with the entire educational program: The principal should be coordinating all aspects of the school's program and facilitating the functioning of all elements.

11. provide an interpretation of the guidance program to the community: The principal should encourage and engage in a discussion of the meaning of the guidance program to the community and the students. Clear understanding of the program's goals and activities should be established.

12. consultation to the staff should be available when planning for a specific student's needs: The principal should be involved in the planning of educational programs for specific students. His knowledge and resourcefulness should be relied on in developing specialized programs.

This list of functions a principal performs is based upon a number of assumptions. First, it is assumed that qualified counselors are available for the elementary schools. It is virtually impossible for counselor education programs to prepare enough qualified counselors to meet the predicted needs. Hitchcock (1965) has predicted 53,000 counselors will be needed for the elementary schools by 1975 and only 4,000 have been identified in the entire nation (Van Hoose and Vafakas, 1968). A survey of schools within the State of Iowa revealed that an estimated 200 qualified elementary school counselors would be needed by 1969 (Brown, 1967). Although counselor education programs are expanding rapidly it seems doubtful that they will be able to meet the predicted demands.

Second, it seems implicit in the list that the staff of the elementary school is already committed to a guidance program and is willing to make changes in its organization. The difficulty in changing an organization, such as a school, can be appreciated when one realizes how long some of the practices in education have been accepted without question. The very concept of the self-contained classroom has been with elementary education for decades and only recently have we witnessed any concerted effort to change this structure or to experiment with new structures.

The following material focuses upon methods of organizing guidance programs in the elementary schools. It examines the procedures for bringing about changes in organizations, such as the elementary school, and the issues which administrators should consider when implementing an organized guidance program in the elementary school.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Probably one of the biggest problems administrators are confronted with is how to make the system more effective. This is a question administrators should continuously deal with in their schools. All too frequently organizations, such as the elementary schools, which are created to meet the needs of individuals become rigid and almost impossible to change. Soon individuals are sacrificing their needs for the good of the organization. No longer does the organization serve the individual, but the individual serves the organization. When the school no longer meets the needs of children it is the responsibility of the administration to examine the organization's effectiveness. In reality this is the first step in bringing about some organizational changes. It is not imperative that the need for an evaluation of the organization be initiated by the school administration. In fact it would increase the probability of change occurring if the desire for change is initiated by those who comprise the organization; however, the school administration is in the best position to observe the total organization and to evaluate its effectiveness.

When an organization begins the process of change it usually passes through the following phases:

1. The participants become aware that a need for change exists within the organization.
2. The capabilities of the members to change the conditions within the organization are assessed.
3. The desire and capacity of the change agent, in this case the elementary school principal, must be considered.

4. Working relationships among the staff must be established and maintained throughout the process of change.

5. The agent of change coordinates the available resources.

6. Selection of appropriate change objectives.

7. New behavior among the participants in the organization are supported and encouraged.

8. The helping relationship is terminated and the organization is able to function in a new manner.

As the change agent enters each phase there are a number of factors which he must consider. The following material briefly discusses some of these factors which must be considered as the elementary school changes to incorporate a more effective guidance program.

The first phase is the awareness that the organization is not functioning most effectively and there is a need for change to occur. This phase may be initiated by a member of the organization or some outside group which has sufficient influence to bring about some change in the program of the elementary school. This group might be composed of members of the community, the state department of public instruction, or some professional organization. However, the members of the organization are more likely to accept the change in the structure if they initiate it themselves and are not forced to change. To avoid being forced to change members of an organization should engage in a continuous evaluation of their effectiveness and explore new methods through which their goals can be achieved. The first phase of evaluation is the collection of information about the particular program which is to be evaluated. The following

are but a few of the criteria available to aid in the collection of information concerning guidance programs:

> Criteria Committee, Elementary School Department of the National Catholic Educational Association. Criteria for evaluation of catholic elementary schools, guidance services. Washington, D. C.: The Catholic University of America Press, 1965.
>
> Hawaii Department of Education. Elementary school guidance in Hawaii. Honolulu, Hawaii: Department of Education, 1964.
>
> Ohio State Department of Education. Ohio elementary school standards. Columbus, Ohio: State Department of Education, 1957.
>
> Missouri State Department of Education. Elementary school guidance and counseling. (rev. ed.) Jefferson City, Mo.: State Department of Education, 1965.

Once the information is collected a comparison can be made between the data and the goals of the staff. The data will give some indication of the strengths and weaknesses of the guidance program. It will create an awareness of the effectiveness of the organization. Only then can the organization decide whether or not change is necessary in its structure. Only then can efforts be made to adapt the guidance program to meet the needs of the staff and students. It may not be necessary to make any changes in the organization, but should changes be necessary the principal should then consider the second phase in the process of change before making any decisions.

At this stage the principal should ask questions concerning the desire and capacity of the staff to bring about some change in the elementary school. How willing is the staff to change the present organizational structure in order to incorporate a guidance program? Are the members of the staff committed to changing their present practices? If the

classroom teacher is unwilling to change his present behavior there is little chance for developing an organized guidance program. It is the classroom teacher who will bear the brunt of the responsibility of the guidance program, especially since few prepared counselors are functioning in the elementary school. The teacher is the individual who must make the extra effort. He is the one who because of his contact with students must do most of the work. His responsibilities will be increased. The teacher is the individual who must implement the concepts of guidance in the classroom.

Involved in this second stage of change is the need to examine the resources within the organization. It may be that the organization does not possess the capabilities to initiate the most rudimentary guidance program. A program to develop the capabilities may have to be developed and supported by the principal. It may be necessary to develop a meaningful in-service education program for his staff. The form of the in-service experience may vary from a workshop to encouraging the staff to enroll in university courses. It may simply be the dissemination of information about child development or the socialization process through written material or a presentation by a consultant. The principal may design a number of case study conferences to develop his staff's appraisal skills and understanding of human behavior. However, he must first determine the organization's capability to change.

The principal must assess the barriers which exist within the organization. Defensiveness among the school's staff makes it difficult to bring about

change in their behavior. If individuals are threatened by new ideas, concepts, or procedures the principal should be aware of this before he suggests changing the organization of the guidance program. If he can anticipate defensive behavior he may want to consider the various strategies which are available. He could counter defensive behavior by involving the staff in planning the change. Teachers are more receptive to changes which they have had a part in planning. However, defensiveness is frequently a result of ignorance and the principal may want to develop methods whereby this can be changed. As suggested earlier there are numerous forms of in-service activities which could be designed to compensate for this lack of awareness. The principal must be aware of barriers which could block any change in the staff's behavior.

The third stage focuses upon the principal's desire and ability to bring about change within the school. Frequently, it is quite comfortable to allow the school to continue to function in the manner it has for the past few years; therefore, the principal who wants to initiate an organized guidance program must ask himself questions about his own desire and capabilities for change in the school. Is the principal really committed to the concept of guidance? Is he willing to accept the changes which will result and the problems these changes will create? Is the principal really willing to take the risk? If the answer to these questions is "yes" the principal will probably have the desire to incorporate a better organized guidance program. He must then focus upon the question of his capability to produce change within his staff and within the school's

organization. Each principal must assess his own capabilities to produce change in the individuals with whom he is associated. Only the principal can determine the amount of impact he has upon his teachers; however, his position as the educational leader in the building gives him power. He has a legitimate power base from which he can induce change into the system.

The fourth phase through which the school must pass in the process of change involves the establishment and maintenance of working relationships. The principal should aid in the clarification of roles and responsibilities of the participants in bringing about change and maintaining that change. After the staff and principal have decided how they can best facilitate the achievement of the goals of guidance, an atmosphere of open communication must be established in the school. Channels of communication among the staff members must be established and maintained so long as they are necessary and meaningful. If the school is not fortunate enough to have a counselor the principal should establish a guidance committee composed of staff members who are interested in improving guidance services. The administration should delegate the responsibility for establishing and improving the program.

Throughout the process of organizational change the principal should function as a coordinator and mediator of the activities. He should function in a supportive manner drawing upon the resources of the members of the organization and serving as a sounding board for new ideas. His objective is for the staff to assume the major responsibility for the

direction of the change. Only when the process is faltering should the principal intervene.

As the staff becomes involved in the process of change it becomes necessary for them to establish priorities in regard to what is going to be changed. These priorities need to be established in relation to the school's resources and objectives. The need for counseling may receive top priority; however, if a qualified counselor is unavailable it is not possible to initiate such a service. The resources for providing counseling service are not available, therefore, the organization cannot incorporate such a change. However, the need to organize the child study program in a meaningful manner could well receive high priority according to the staff and may be obtainable. The material presented in this paper provides a basis for considering new methods of appraisal to be incorporated into a child study program. A basis for up-grading the informational services in the elementary schools is also provided.

The changes which begin to occur in the staff and organization need to be encouraged and supported. If the principal does not provide opportunities for the staff to plan and to apply new behaviors he can hardly expect his staff to change. If the principal wants his staff to become actively involved in guidance activities he must give them support and encouragement. A reward system should be developed for teachers who incorporate guidance practices in their classroom. They should receive some form of reinforcement. Postive reinforcement is one of the most effective ways of changing behavior.

If the principal has been effective in involving his staff in planning and initiating changes in the school he should be able to focus upon areas other than guidance. If the momentum has developed among the staff members new leadership should emerge and the staff should be able to function effectively without the principal. When it becomes feasible to employ a counselor he will enjoy the benefit of working with a staff who possesses some skill, understanding, and commitment to an organized guidance program. With the support of the staff and administration the effectiveness of a counselor is increased tremendously.

QUESTIONS RELATED TO THE IMPLEMENTATION OF GUIDANCE PROGRAMS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Like any aspect of education there are a number of questions related to the implementation of an organized guidance program. On an empirical basis many of the questions can not be resolved at this point in the movement's development. In all probability, a majority of the questions will never be resolved empirically and educators must examine their own thoughts on the issues. The following is a brief discussion of questions most frequently asked by elementary school principals:

1. How does one implement a guidance program when there is no counselor available? Considering the brief discussion of organizational change the principal should focus upon the areas of child study, informational services, teacher-student interaction, or group procedures which can be developed from the available resources and have the

possibility of being implemented. However, the principal should consider drawing upon resources other than those within his building, such as the local high school counselor, the county or intermediate unit, the state department of public instruction or the staff of a university. Secondly, the principal should use the simple principle of ego involvement in order to get the staff to incorporate guidance activities in the classroom. Use the concept of the guidance committee to initiate guidance practices. Select interested and capable members of the staff to be responsible for the development and implementation of the guidance program. Involve the staff in case studies. Encourage the staff to analyze their behavior in relation to the students.

The guidance program will not be complete because the services of a counselor are not available, but the principal should encourage the development of a basic child study program and the incorporation of information in the classroom pertinent to the child's understanding of himself and his environment. To evaluate the guidance program, to assess the resources, to design changes for the educational program, and to implement the changes requires time and support from the administration.

2. Who should the individuals involved in the guidance program be responsible to? The elementary school principal is legally and ethically responsible for the activities and personnel in his

building. Therefore, it seems imperative that the personnel involved in the implementation of a guidance program in a principal's building realize they are responsible directly to the building principal.

3. What are the characteristics of an effective elementary school counselor? The effective elementary school counselor is skilled in human relationships, has a strong commitment to children, and should possess a strong background in the social sciences. The individual should have a master's degree from a recognized counselor education institution. Even though it is a much debated issue, it is generally agreed the elementary school counselor should have had successful teaching experience.

In order to receive an endorsement as an elementary counselor in Iowa, the applicant shall have met the requirements for a professional certificate, and in addition thereto, shall possess a master's degree in guidance and counseling from a recognized institution, based upon an approved program of study in which emphasis was placed upon guidance and counseling at the elementary-school level. This program must include supervised guidance and counseling experience under the supervision of the institution, or actual experience recognized as the equivalent thereof by the institution. The applicant must also present evidence of successful teaching experience.

4. What is the most effective way for a counselor to function? Neither counseling, consultation, or coordination are processes which are totally effective with all clients. Therefore, neither of them should be used exclusively. To use only one method of teaching for all children is to deny that individual differences exist. Individuals respond differently to stimuli. Rather than require the counselor to function in one manner a principal should support the idea of allowing counselors to function in the manner in which they are most effective. Each counselor, like each teacher, should be allowed to develop his own style.

5. What is privileged communication in the counselor-client relationship? The counselor, bound by the code of ethics to which he subscribes, is obligated to break confidence only in the best interest of the child. Confidentiality must be maintained unless the child or others are endangered. The principal must rely upon the professional judgment of the counselor when dealing with confidentiality. The counselor's preparation deals with the question of maintaining confidence and he is aware of the circumstances involved when confidence must be broken.

6. What physical and financial provisions should be made for a counselor? Rather extensive description of the necessary physical facilities have been provided in the literature (Nelson, 1969). However, it is essential that the counselor have a properly furnished office which is private. The

counselor must be able to offer individuals privacy. The actual cost of providing guidance services to elementary school students has been estimated at thirty dollars per student (Mathewson, 1962); however, like all cost estimates this one will vary.

BASIS FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF A CHILD STUDY PROGRAM AND INFORMATION SERVICES

The following material is presented so the elementary school principal will have some insight into what types of materials are available in the area of child study and informational services. These are only samples and are by no means inclusive.

CHILD STUDY

The child study program in most elementary schools consists of the administration of achievement tests annually and an aptitude or intelligence test on a biannual basis. Even with a minimal child study program of this nature the results are usually placed in the cumulative folder of each child and little effort is made to use them. The reasons for the filing of test information for posterity range from too many demands being placed upon the faculty's time to ignorance of how to use the information. As a result of the tremendous pressures placed upon teachers to engage in other activities and a lack of understanding of test materials teachers are forced to neglect the most important element in the educational institutions, THE CHILD. It seems imperative that we, as educators, actively engage in some organized study of children we teach.

The principles of appraisal are discussed in depth by Gibson and Higgins (1966) and it is assumed that elementary school principals are familiar with them. However, there are two principles which are implicit in the discussion of appraisal by Gibson and Higgins (1966) which should be made explicit. First, when engaging in appraisal activities an individual must keep his objectives in mind. If there is no relationship between the information being collected and the original purpose for appraising a particular phenomenon the process becomes meaningless. Volumes of information collected and deposited in cumulative folders are meaningless and useless because they do not contribute to the student's educational development. The collection of information must be purposeful. Second, the collection of information must be continuous and complete so the individual using the information has a complete picture of the development of the child. It is very frustrating and disappointing to have a fragmentary and incomplete picture of a child's development when the information is needed to assist the student. As principals you are probably well aware of violations of these two implicit principles.

For organizational purposes the study of the child has been divided into the assessment of the child and the assessment of the child's environment. In reality it is extremely difficult if not impossible to separate a child from his environment when attempting to collect information about him.

Assessment of the Child

As educators we are concerned with the child's personal development as

well as his educational development. Therefore, we are concerned with the child's cognitive development as well as his personal adjustment. The assessment of a student's cognitive abilities has long been a concern of educators. In fact it has been the prime concern of educators until the late thirties when the concept of the whole child came into existence. One only has to scan the Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook (Buros, 1965) to realize the vast majority of the appraisal instruments applicable to the elementary school focus upon the assessment of the cognitive abilities of children. The Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook presents excellent reviews of appraisal instruments presently in print.

Although personal adjustment of students has become a prime concern of educators few standardized methods of assessing an individual's adjustment have been developed. A majority of the methods used to assess an elementary school student's adjustment require a skilled psychometrist or observer to make judgments. This is in part due to the nature of the child in the elementary school and the present level of sophistication of our assessment techniques. At the present time it requires reading skills beyond the capacities of the typical elementary school child to complete many of the questionnaires used to measure an individual's personal adjustment. However, the following two instruments have been standardized and published:

> California Test of Personality: The reliability and validity of this instrument is questionable at best; however, it is one of the few available instruments at the elementary school level. There are forms for every age group from kindergarten to adulthood, but should only be used by a skilled individual and not administered in mass to students.

SRA Junior Inventory: This inventory focuses upon the needs and problems of children in grades 4 through 8 and can be useful if analyzed item by item and not by the profile method originally designed for the inventory. This instrument can be used by the classroom teacher and other school personnel.

Although these are two common instruments used to assess a child's adjustment by requesting the individual to fill out a questionnaire, there are non-standardized methods which the principal may find helpful.

Gordon (1966) has developed a scale which attempts to determine how a child views himself. It has been assumed by many and validated by research that an individual's perceptions of himself will affect his behavior. Gordon's scale, How I See Myself (Appendix A) represents a unique method of assessing a child's self-concept. Although Gordon (1966) points out that it has been used in grades 3 through 12 it has limited usefulness in working with culturally disadvantaged children. He further points out that the significance of this type of self-report instrument is not in the total score a child receives, but how he marks the items. In using an instrument of this nature the teacher can get more insight into how a child perceives himself in different situations by examining the items rather than a total score. There does exist a relationship between how the child perceives himself and how trained observers feel the child perceives himself. There does appear to be some validity in this instrument.

Another instrument developed by Coopersmith (1968) attempts to measure a child's self-esteem. This instrument (Appendix B) measures a child's self-esteem generally and with regard to his peers, home, school, and has

built into it a lie scale. Coopersmith (1968) has gathered some information suggesting this is a valid instrument. There are features which make this instrument attractive for use in the classroom. First, there are two highly related forms of this instrument which allows for a test-retest without duplication of the items. Secondly, one of the forms of this instrument gives some indication of a child's defensiveness through a lie scale. Third, this instrument does have some validity and a foundation in research.

The two instruments mentioned to this point are called self-report instruments. This means that the individual reports how he perceives himself. This technique has some obvious faults. One of the problems central to self-report instruments is the degree of truthfulness in the child's response. Except for Coopersmith's Self-Esteem Inventory these instruments do not provide any indication of the child's truthfulness; a real concern of those who must interpret the results of these instruments. Secondly, Gordon (1966) points out that the meaningfulness of the questions and the child's answers to the questions are of key importance in self-report techniques. Frequently, the questions asked on self-report instruments are removed from the child's experience, and therefore, his responses are not meaningful.

There are numerous rating scales which can be employed by trained observers to assess the child's personality. Coopersmith (1968) has developed a rating scale which attempts to measure the same factor his Self-Esteem Inventory does. This Behavior Rating Form (BRF) (Appendix C)

consists of 13 items focusing upon the child's self-esteem and his defensive behavior.

Cavins and Romberg (1968) in connection with the Deerfield, Illinois, School District have developed a behavior rating scale which could be completed by school personnel. This scale, Behavioral Observations (Appendix D) focuses upon the total development of the child with a great deal of emphasis upon the child's social adjustment as well as his behavior in the classroom setting. It not only gives the observer some structure for his observations, but also provides some flexibility for making anecdotal comments. This instrument was designed primarily for the needs of the personnel in the Deerfield School District #109 and could easily be adapted by many schools for their own purposes. The reliability and validity of instruments of this nature depend to a large extent upon the observer's skills and the purpose of the scale. If the observer is not perceptive or sensitive to children his observations will be of little worth.

One of the common problems educators are confronted with is when they should seek professional assistance for a child. When should a child be referred because of adjustment problems? There is some research suggesting that school personnel can make good judgments about behavior (Bower, 1960); however, there does exist a need to structure the observations in such a manner that others can understand the observations and use them in adapting the environment to help the child. Because deviant behavior is exhibited in the classroom (Cooper, Ryan, and Hutcheson, 1959)

it is imperative that school personnel be able to recognize it. Rutter (1967) has developed a scale by which deviant behavior can be observed and reported in a structured manner. This scale (Appendix E) can be used to gather information about the child whom you believe may need professional assistance.

Another rating scale quite similar to Rutter's Child Behavior Rating Scale has been developed by Dayton and Byrne (1967) which lists twenty-four different forms of behavior which are considered deviant. Novick, Rosenfield, Bloch, and Dawson (1966) have developed a list of 237 items describing behavior which is considered deviant. The observer simply checks whether the item is true, false, or cannot be determined. The advantage of this scale is that it can be administered to an adult, such as a parent, who knows the child well or can be completed by directly observing the child.

Assessment of the Child's Environment

The personality of the child is the result of the interaction of his inherent potential and the environment in which he exists. This section will focus upon methods whereby information about the child's peer relationship and family can be obtained.

Methods of Assessing the Child's Peer Group: Traditionally peer relationships have been assessed through sociometrics. Sociometry which has evolved from the work of Jacob Moreno has become one of the most reliable and valid methods of assessing an individual's interpersonal relationships.

One method used by Gronlund (1960) simply asks the students to nominate five individuals with whom they would like to sit, work, or play. After the entire class has made their nominations simply tally their selections for each member of the class. From this you can determine who is the most popular child in the group and who is least popular. A variation of this form of a sociometric test is to ask students with whom they would not like to sit, work, or play. This will give some insight as to whom is being rejected by his peers. From this data the classroom structure can be changed and be made more beneficial to the child.

A variation of this method is called the "Guess-Who" technique. An example of this technique has been developed by the California State Department of Education (Appendix F). This particular form of a sociometric instrument not only gives insight into how a child's classmates perceive him, but also provides insight into how the child perceives himself.

There are numerous textbooks available which discuss sociometrics in greater depth (Warters, 1961; Gibson and Higgins, 1966; Gronlund, 1960) and an entire journal, Sociometry, which for the past two decades has focused upon interpersonal relationships and ways to assess them. Before using the various sociometric instruments it would be helpful to review some of the general guidelines presented by Waters (1960):

1. the questions should be stated in a clear and concise manner.
2. the confidentiality of the results should be made clear to the children so they will feel free to respond openly.

3. delay the use of negative questions, such as who they would not like to sit with, until they are accustomed to the sociometric procedure.

4. the children's nominations should be used to structure the classroom or they will not see any purpose in filling out the instrument.

Sociometric instruments are very reliable over a long period of time and are believed to be a good method for assessing the adjustment of a child on a global basis. Also, the results of sociometric instruments provide the teacher with some insight into structuring his classroom for more effective learning.

Assessment of the Family: Although the family plays a key role in the development of a child, educators frequently are reluctant to ask parents for information about a child. We must overcome this resistance. Through child study parents will feel like they are actively participating in the child's education. This not only will improve community-school relations, but also will provide a source of information which could be used to plan the child's educational program.

A typical method used to collect information about the family environment is represented by the outline presented in Appendix G. This outline provides some structure for the collection of information through an interview with the parents of a child. There are other outlines available which might be more useful (Shertzer and Stone, 1966; Hill and Luckey, 1969; Gibson and Higgins, 1966). This technique possesses the virtue of flexibility yet is highly dependent upon the clinical skills of the interviewer and requires a great deal of time.

It should be recalled that the scale developed by Novick, Rosenfield, Bloch, and Dawson (1966) could be used to solicit information from parents about their child. Also, the Vineland Social Maturity Scale (Doll, 1947) can be used in an interview setting with the child's parents to determine the degree of self-direction, self-help, communication, socialization, etc. which the child exhibits. The advantage of using this scale is in the norms which have been developed for each item. There is normative data for each item used in the Vineland Social Maturity Scale which helps in interpreting the data gained in the interview. However, the ability to administer and interpret this instrument is developed under close clinical supervision.

INFORMATIONAL SERVICES

Hill and Luckey (1969) have suggested eight guidance learnings which should be focused upon in the elementary school. Two of these guidance learnings are concerned with the child developing an understanding of his environment and human behavior. To assist in the development of an understanding of his environment and human behavior, a child needs accurate and reliable information. This information deals with the world of work, education, and human behavior.

Guidance from its conception has been concerned with the vocational development of individuals. Although the need for information related to occupational choice seems more immediate at the secondary school level research indicates that in reality a child's vocational development actually

begins in the elementary school. During elementary school, attitudes are formed about various occupations and children begin to develop concepts of themselves which are related to occupational choice. Many of these attitudes and perceptions of self are based on inaccurate and unreliable information. By presenting accurate, reliable information to children in the elementary school, Hoppock has suggested that the following eight objectives can be achieved:

> Acquaint the child with his community. The child will be too anxious about his environment if he does not understand it. By acquainting the child with the community he will be less anxious.
>
> Encourage curiosity and exploration. By allowing the study of the world of work you perpetuate the child's natural curiosity.
>
> Create an awareness of the world of work. The child's awareness of occupational opportunities will be expanded by focusing upon the world of work.
>
> Develop a positive attitude toward the world of work. The child can be encouraged to develop a view of work as a useful and purposeful aspect of an individual's life.
>
> Develop the child's ability to make decisions. The child will begin to explore and learn decision-making skills which are essential in making vocational plans.
>
> Provide assistance for vocational planning. Help the student who has to make a vocational choice before he enters high school. The frequency of students not completing elementary school is still quite high and the likelihood of receiving vocational guidance outside the school is quite limited.
>
> Provide assistance for educational planning. Frequently the child must make choices about his high school program which are related to a vocational choice. Information needs to be available for students placed in this situation.
>
> Create an understanding of financial responsibility. Show children how they can earn money and not be dependent upon illegal activities to secure money.

The classroom teacher can involve children in everything from tours of plants to actually being employed. The number of resources available and appropriate for the elementary schools are too numerous to list; however, if one wants to examine this area in greater depth, they should consult a textbook by W. Norris, Occupational Information in the Elementary School which is published by Science Research Associates. This textbook is the only one which focuses upon the use of occupational information in the elementary school; however, Hill and Luckey (1969) present an excellent chapter in their textbook and a list of materials available for use in the elementary schools. The Oklahoma State Department of Education has developed A Guide for Developmental Vocational Guidance (1968). This handbook, which resulted from a two week workshop focusing upon vocational guidance in grades K-12, provides guidelines and suggested activities for those educators who want to incorporate vocational guidance into their curriculum. The guidance movement is not only concerned about the vocational development of children, but also about the child's personal development. It is the purpose of guidance to develop within children self-understanding as well as understanding of others. The materials prepared by Ralph Ojemann (1958) are designed to create self-understanding and understanding of others within children. Ojemann and his associates have developed a series of materials for the elementary schools which focus upon human relations and the causes of human behavior. There are other sources of material which relate to this topic. The National Education Association has published a series entitled Unfinished Stories for Use in the Classroom which can be used to stimulate discussion of human behavior

among children. Also, Science Research Associates publishes materials entitled Social Science Laboratory Units (Lippitt, Fox, Schaible, 1968) which can be used in grades 4, 5, & 6. This material represents a seven-unit series designed to deal with the dynamics of human relations. It deals with the areas of friendly and unfriendly behavior, understanding people who are different, group dynamics, growing up, influence as social power, and decision-making.

SUMMARY

The importance of the principal in changing the elementary school's organization can not be over emphasized. He is an important element in initiating change within the school. His leadership, skill in mobilizing the available resources, and commitment to the concept of guidance are significant factors in the implementation of guidance in the elementary school. If he is unable to change the organization to include the concept of guidance the information gathered about children and their environment are useless. It is the principal who can arrange for teachers to participate in in-service education programs and incorporate the concepts within their classrooms. The principal must get his staff involved in the guidance program if it is to be successful.

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APPENDIX A

HOW I SEE MYSELF, ELEMENTARY FORM *

DIRECTIONS:

Look at No. 1. On one side it has "Nothing gets me mad" and on the other side "I get mad easily and explode". If you feel that nothing gets you too mad most of the time you would circle the 1. If you feel that most of the time you get mad easily and explode, you would circle the 2, 3, or 4.

Look at No. 2. It is different. On one side it has "I don't stay with something till I finish". If you feel that most of the time you don't stay with things and finish them, you would circle a 1. If you feel that most of the time you do stay with things and finish you would circle a 5. If you feel you fit somewhere in between you would circle the 2, 3, or 4. It is important to see that some of these mean one thing on the left side, some of them mean another. So it is very important to think about each statement as I read it. I will answer any questions you need answered, so feel free to ask them.

Remember, we want how you yourself feel. We want you to be honest with us in your answer. Remember, it is how you feel most of the time.

1.	Nothing gets me too mad	1	2	3	4	5	I get mad easily and explode
2.	I don't stay with things and finish them	1	2	3	4	5	I stay with something till I finish
3.	I'm very good at drawing	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good in drawing
4.	I don't like to work on committees, projects	1	2	3	4	5	I like to work with others
5.	I wish I were smaller (taller)	1	2	3	4	5	I'm just the right height
6.	I worry a lot	1	2	3	4	5	I don't worry much
7.	I wish I could do something with my hair	1	2	3	4	5	My hair is nice-looking
8.	Teachers like me	1	2	3	4	5	Teachers don't like me
9.	I've lots of energy	1	2	3	4	5	I haven't much energy
10.	I don't play games very well	1	2	3	4	5	I play games very well
11.	I'm just the right weight	1	2	3	4	5	I wish I were heavier, lighter
12.	The girls don't like me, leave me out	1	2	3	4	5	The girls like me a lot, choose me
13.	I'm very good at speaking before a group	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good at speaking before a group

* Appreciation is expressed to I. Gordon for permission to reprint this scale. It is copyrighted and copies of the scale may be purchased from Dr. I. Gordon, 2900 S.W. 2nd Court, Gainesville, Florida 32601.

14.	My face is pretty (good looking)	1	2	3	4	5	I wish I were prettier (good looking)
15.	I'm very good in music	1	2	3	4	5	I'm not much good in music
16.	I get along well with teachers	1	2	3	4	5	I don't get along with teachers
17.	I don't like teachers	1	2	3	4	5	I like teachers very much
18.	I don't feel at ease, comfortable inside	1	2	3	4	5	I feel very at ease, comfortable inside
19.	I don't like to try new things	1	2	3	4	5	I like to try new things
20.	I have trouble controling my feelings	1	2	3	4	5	I can handle my feelings
21.	I do well in school work	1	2	3	4	5	I don't do well in school
22.	I want the boys to like me	1	2	3	4	5	I don't want the boys to like me
23.	I don't like the way I look	1	2	3	4	5	I like the way I look
24.	I don't want the girls to like me	1	2	3	4	5	I want the girls to like me
25.	I'm very healthy	1	2	3	4	5	I get sick a lot
26.	I don't dance well	1	2	3	4	5	I'm a very good dancer
27.	I write well	1	2	3	4	5	I don't write well
28.	I like to work along	1	2	3	4	5	I don't like to work alone
29.	I use my time well	1	2	3	4	5	I don't know how to plan my time
30.	I'm not much good at making things with my hands	1	2	3	4	5	I'm very good at making things with my hands
31.	I wish I could do something about my skin	1	2	3	4	5	My skin is nice looking
32.	School isn't interesting to me	1	2	3	4	5	School is very interesting
33.	I don't do arithmetic well	1	2	3	4	5	I'm real good in arithmetic
34.	I'm not as smart as the others	1	2	3	4	5	I'm smarter than most of the others
35.	The boys like me a lot, choose me	1	2	3	4	5	The boys don't like me, leave me out
36.	My clothes are not as I'd like	1	2	3	4	5	My clothes are nice
37.	I like school	1	2	3	4	5	I don't like school
38.	I wish I were built like the others	1	2	3	4	5	I'm happy with the way I am
39.	I don't read well	1	2	3	4	5	I read very well
40.	I don't learn new things easily	1	2	3	4	5	I learn new things easily

APPENDIX B

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI) *

There are two forms of the Self-Esteem Inventory: A contains 58 items and a total of five subscales, B contains 25 items and no subscales. Form A provides a general assessment of self-esteem which may be broken down into component subscales depending on the goals and interest of the tester, but which may also be used without such differentiation. Form B is briefer, does not permit further differentiation, and takes about half the administration time of Form A. The total scores of Forms A and B correlate .86, a finding which has been established to a markedly similar extent on four different samples. This is not surprising since Form B was based on an item analysis of Form A and includes those twenty-five items which showed the highest item-total score relationships of scores obtained with Form A. Validating information is presented in Coopersmith's monograph "The Antecedents of Self-Esteem" (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968).

Form A: 58 items
There are five subscales which cycle in sequence the length of the SEI. Those subscales are:

General Self	Items 1, 2, 3, 8, 9, 10, 15, 16, 17, etc.
Social Self-peers	Items 4, 11, 18, 25, 32, 39, 46, 53
Home-parents	Items 5, 12, 19, 26, 33, 40, 47, 54
Lie Scale	Items 6, 13, 20, 27, 34, 41, 48, 55
School-academic	Items 7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42, 49, 56

As noted above the subscales do not have to be scored separately with the exception of the Lie Scale. The responses indicating high self-esteem and low Lie defensive reactions are noted on the enclosed scored copies of the SEI.

The scores are reported as:

I. Total number correct of all scales excluding Lie (a maximum of 50).
II. A separate score total number of responses indicative of defensive, Lie reaction (a maximum of 8).

For convenience sake the total SEI score is multiplied by two so that maximum score is 100.

Thus SEI score 50 x 2 = 100
Lie score 8 = 8

In the event that separate subscales for a given purpose are desired, the responses are scored and noted separately in the same manner as the Lie Scale.

* Appreciation is expressed to S. Coopersmith for permission to reprint this scale.

Form B
The score is reported as a single score with a maximum of 25, indicative of high self-esteem. The number of correct responses is noted, then multiplied by four (25 x 4 = 100) providing a figure which is comparable to the Self-evaluation score obtained on Form A (excluding the Lie).

Age Range: Has been used without difficulty on a group basis with populations ranging from 9 to adult level. Older groups are not comfortable with the wording of several items which may accordingly be altered to suit the sample. College student samples have not indicated any resistance to the present wordings of these two forms. In samples with children younger than 9 or where the educational experience has not resulted in an average reading or conceptual level, rewording and/or individual administration may be required.

Sex: The two forms are used for both males and females. In most studies there were no significant differences between the esteem level of males and females tested.

Distribution: In most samples the curve is skewed in the direction of high self-esteem. The means have been in the vicinity of 70-80 and the standard deviations approximately 11-13. More specific information is reported by Coopersmith. Quite obviously there are no exact criteria of high, medium and low self-esteem. This will vary with the sample, distribution, theoretical considerations, etc. Employing position in the group as an index of relative self-appraisal, Coopersmith has employed the upper quartile as indicative of high esteem; lower quartile as indicating low esteem and the interquartile range as indicative of medium esteem.

Name_____School_____

Class_____Date_____

Please mark each statement in the following way:
If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "LIKE ME."
If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "UNLIKE ME."
There are no right or wrong answers.

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
Example: I'm a hard worker._____		
1. I often wish I were someone else._____		
2. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class._____		
3. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could._____		
4. I can make up my mind without too much trouble._____		
5. I'm a lot of fun to be with._____		
6. I get upset easily at home._____		
7. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new._____		
8. I'm popular with kids my own age._____		
9. My parents usually consider my feelings._____		
10. I give in very easily._____		
11. My parents expect too much of me._____		
12. Its pretty tough to be me._____		
13. Things are all mixed up in my life._____		
14. Kids usually follow my ideas._____		
15. I have a low opinion of myself._____		
16. There are many times when I'd like to leave home._____		
17. I often feel upset in school._____		
18. I'm not as nice looking as most people._____		
19. If I have something to say, I usually say it._____		
20. My parents understand me._____		
21. Most people are better liked than I am._____		
22. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me._____		
23. I often get discouraged in school._____		
24. Things usually don't bother me._____		
25. I can't be depended upon._____		

SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY (SEI)

Please mark each statement in the following way: If the statement describes how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "LIKE ME." If the statement does not describe how you usually feel, put a check ( ) in the column "UNLIKE ME."

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
1. I spend a lot ot time daydreaming.		
2. I'm pretty sure of myself.		
3. I often wish I were someone else.		
4. I'm easy to like.		
5. My parents and I have a lot of fun together.		
6. I never worry about anything.		
7. I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.		
8. I wish I were younger.		
9. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.		
10. I can make up my mind without too much trouble.		
11. I'm a lot of fun to be with.		
12. I get upset easily at home.		
13. I always do the right thing.		
14. I'm proud of my school work.		
15. Someone always has to tell me what to do.		
16. It takes me a long time to get used to anything new.		
17. I'm often sorry for the things I do.		
18. I'm popular with kids my own age.		
19. My parents usually consider my feelings.		

	LIKE ME	JNLIKE ME
20. I'm never unhappy.		
21. I'm doing the best work that I can.		
22. I give in very easily.		
23. I can usually take care of myself.		
24. I'm pretty happy.		
25. I would rather play with children younger than me.		
26. My parents expect too much of me.		
27. I like everyone I know.		
28. I like to be called on in class.		
29. I understand myself.		
30. It's pretty tough to be me.		
31. Things are all mixed up in my life.		
32. Kids usually follow my ideas.		
33. No one pays much attention to me at home.		
34. I never get scolded.		
35. I'm not doing as well in school as I'd like to.		
36. I can make up my mind and stick to it.		
37. I really don't like being a boy - girl.		
38. I have a low opinion of myself.		
39. I don't like to be with other people.		
40. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.		
41. I'm never shy.		
42. I often feel upset in school.		

	LIKE ME	UNLIKE ME
43. I often feel ashamed of myself.		
44. I'm not as nice looking as most people.		
45. If I have something to say, I usually say it.		
46. Kids pick on my very often.		
47. My parents understand me.		
48. I always tell the truth.		
49. My teacher makes me feel I'm not good enough.		
50. I don't care what happens to me.		
51. I'm a failure.		
52. I get upset easily when I'm scolded.		
53. Most people are better liked than I am.		
54. I usually feel as if my parents are pushing me.		
55. I always know what to say to people.		
56. I often get discouraged in school.		
57. Things usually don't bother me.		
58. I can't be depended on.		

APPENDIX C

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SCORING AND INTERPRETING THE BEHAVIOR RATING FORM (BRF) FOR APPRAISING ASSURED AND CONFIDENT BEHAVIORS *

There are two parts to the thirteen items of the Self-Esteem Behavior Rating Form (BRF). The first ten items provide an appraisal of behaviors that have been associated to poise, assurance and self-trust. These ten items include reactions to new situations and failure reactions to criticism and failure, self-deprecation and hesitation to express opinions publicly. The second part of three items provides an index of behaviors that are frequently defensive in nature. These include bragging, domination or bullying and attention seeking.

Each behavior is rated on a five point scale. The rating indicative of high self-esteem behavior has been varied in position from right to left, always to never, to minimize superficial response basis. The scores are obtained in the following manner.

Part I (Items 1 - 10) Self-Esteem Behavior
Total of scores obtained on items according to enclosed key. Since maximum score on each item is 5 maximum total (10x5) is 50. This total is multiplied by two to provide the convenient conventional base of 100. Ex. 32x2=64.

Part II (Items 11 - 12) Defensive Behavior
Total score of items in accord with enclosed key. Total of scores reported per se, to maximum of 15. Higher scores indicate greater defensiveness with scores of 10 or greater particularly worthy of note. Score is Defensive Behaviors (Def. Beh.).

Age: Has been used with grade and junior high school students.

Sex: Teachers tend to rate girls somewhat and significantly higher than boys. The same form of BRF is used for males and females.

Distribution: Skewed in favorable direction
Marked differences in rater
Generally employ relative position in class as index of self-esteem behavior

Validating information and other data is cited in Coopersmith's "Antecedents of Self-Esteem." (Freeman, San Francisco, 1968)

* Appreciation is expressed to S. Coopersmith for permission to reprint this scale.

BEHAVIOR RATING FORM (BRF)

1. Does this child adapt easily to new situations, feel comfortable in new settings, enter easily into new activities?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

2. Does this child hesitate to express his opinions, as evidenced by extreme caution, failure to contribute, or a subdued manner in speaking situations?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

3. Does this child become upset by failures or other strong stresses as evidenced by such behaviors as pouting, whining, or withdrawing?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

4. How often is this child chosen for activities by his classmates? Is his companionship sought for and valued?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

5. Does this child become alarmed or frightened easily? Does he become very restless or jittery when procedures are changed, exams are scheduled or strange individuals are in the room?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

6. Does this child seek much support and reassurance from his peers or the teacher, as evidenced by seeking their nearness or frequent inquiries as to whether he is doing well?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

7. When this child is scolded or criticized, does he become either very aggressive or very sullen and withdrawn?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

8. Does this child deprecate his school work, grades, activities, and work products? Does he indicate he is not doing as well as expected?

_____always (1) _____usually (2) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (4) _____never (5)

9. Does this child show confidence and assurance in his actions toward his teachers and classmates?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

10. To what extent does this child show a sense of self-esteem, self-respect, and appreciation of his own worthiness?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

11. Does this child publicly brag or boast about his exploits?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

12. Does this child attempt to dominate or bully other children?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

13. Does this child continually seek attention, as evidenced by such behaviors as speaking out of turn and making unnecessary noises?

_____always (5) _____usually (4) _____sometimes (3) _____seldom (2) _____never (1)

APPENDIX D

BEHAVIORAL OBSERVATIONS *

CHILD'S NAME_____

AGE____SCHOOL_____GRADE____TEACHER'S NAME_____

GUIDANCE ASSISTANT_____

DATE OF OBSERVATION_____

Observational Setting Should Be Indicated.

1. CHILD'S GENERAL APPEARANCE

2. PHYSICAL COORDINATION

   a. Running and Gait

   b. Throwing

   c. Level of Physical Energy

   d. Gross Motor Coordination

1	2	3	4	5
Very poor Coord.	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Good Coord.

* Appreciation is expressed to D. Cavins and S. Romberg for permission to reprint this scale.

3. SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

a. Social Adjustment

1	2	3	4	5
Not Accepted	Tolerated By Others	Liked by Some & Disliked by Some	Accepted by Most of the Children	Accpeted by Children

b. Group Participation

1	2	3	4	5
Does Not Participate	Sometimes Participates	Often Participates	Participates Most of the Time	Very Good Participation

c. How does he relate to adults?

d. Acceptance of Authority

e. Social Independence

1	2	3	4	5
Overly Dependent	Sometimes Independent	Self-Sufficient Most of the Time	Self-Sufficient	Overly Independent

4. EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

a. How does he handle frustrations:

1	2	3	4	5
Always Becomes Disorganized	Often Disorganized	Occasionally Disorganized	Seldom Disorganized	Never Disorganized

b. When he is frustrated, does he blame himself or others?

c. Impulse Control

1	2	3	4	5
Must Seek Immed. Satisfaction	Rarely is in Control of Impulses	Sometimes Controls Impulses	Usually Controls Impulses	Is in Control Of His Impulses

5. CHILD'S NEEDS

a. Seeks Attention

Often_____How?

Sometimes_____

Never_____

b. Seeks Approval

Often_____How?

Sometimes_____

Never_____

c. Is there an apparent need to dominate in certain situations? Describe

d. Need for Achievement

1	2	3	4	5
Not Motivated	Gives Up Easily	Motivated Most of the Time	Well Motivated	Overly Motivated

6. ATTENTION

a. Distractability

1	2	3	4	5
Incapable of Concentration	Distracted Easily	Adequate Attention	Good Attention	Able to Concentrate Even Under Advrse Conditions

b. Attention Span

1	2	3	4	5
Poor		Good		Excellent

7. INTELLECTURAL ACTIVITIES

a. Classroom Participation

1	2	3	4	5
Does Not Participate in Classroom Discussions	Seldom Participates in Classroom Discussions	Participates Adequately	Participates Most of the Time	Always Participates

b. Follows Directions

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Often	Most of the Time	Always

8. QUALITY OF WORK

1	2	3	4	5
Always Poor	Often Poor Quality	Moderately Good	Consistently Good	Excellent

9. WORK HABITS (Circle if applicable)

a. Tries to complete work as quickly as possible regardless of quality.

b. Slow but makes many errors.

c. Fairly systematic in work.

d. Systematic

e. Extremely systematic

10. REQUEST INFORMATION FROM TEACHERS

a. How does he act in a new situation?

b. Leadership Ability

11. GENERAL IMPRESSIONS

APPENDIX E

RUTTER'S CHILD BEHAVIOR RATING SCALE *

Below are a series of descriptions of behavior often shown by children. If the child definitely shows the behavior described by the statement, place a cross in the box in column 3. If the child behaves somewhat according to the statement but to a lesser extent or less often, place a cross in the box in column 2. If, as far as you are aware, the child does not show the behavior, place a cross in the box in column 1. Please show one cross for each statement. Thank you.

STATEMENT	DOESN'T APPLY	APPLIES SOMEWHAT	CERTAINLY APPLIES
1. Very restless. Often running about or jumping up and down. Hardly ever still.			
2. Truants from school.			
3. Squirmy, fidgety child			
4. Often destroys own or others' belongings.			
5. Frequently fights with other children.			
6. Not much liked by other children.			
7. Often worried, worries about many things.			
8. Tends to do things on his own--rather solitary.			
9. Irritable. Is quick to fly off the handle.			
10. Often appears miserable, unhappy, tearful, or distressed.			
11. Has twitches, mannerisms, or tics of the fact or body.			
12. Frequently sucks thumb or finger.			
13. Frequently bites nails or fingers.			
14. Tends to be absent from school for trivial reasons.			
15. Is often disobedient.			
16. Has poor concentration.			
17. Tends to be fearful or afraid of new things or new situations.			
18. Fussy or overparticular child.			
19. Often tells lies.			
20. Has stolen things on one or more occasions.			
21. Has wet or soiled self at school this year.			
22. Often complains of pains or aches.			
23. Has had tears on arrival at school or has refused to come into the building this year.			
24. Has a stutter or stammer.			

	DOESN'T APPLY	APPLIES SOMEWHAT	CERTAINLY APPLIES
25. Has other speech difficulty.			
26. Bullies other children.			

How well do you know this child? Very well. Moderately well. Not very well.

Signature (Mr./Mrs./Miss).....Date.....

Other remarks.

* Appreciation is expressed to M. Rutter for permission to reprint this scale.

APPENDIX F

Name_____School_____Grade_____

THE CLASS PLAY *

Just imagine your class was going to put on a play and you are selected to direct it. Below you will see the kinds of parts that will be needed for this play. As director of the play, you have the responsibility of selecting any boy or girl in your class for any of the parts. Since many of the parts are very small, you may, if you wish, select the same boy or girl for more than one part.

THESE ARE THE PARTS

Part 1 - The hero -- someone who is good in sports and in school work. _____

Part 2 - Someone who is often mean and gets into fights a great deal (boy or girl). _____

Part 3 - The Heroine -- someone who gets along well with other boys and girls and with the teacher. _____

Part 4 - Someone who is always getting angry about little things. _____

Part 5 - Someone who could be the her's friend - a kind, helpful boy or girl. _____

Part 6 - Someone who could play the part of a bully - picks on boys and girls smaller or weaker than himself. _____

Part 7 - Someone who has a good sense of humor but is always careful not to disturb the teacher or the class. _____

Part 8 - Someone who could play the part of a person who doesn't ever say anything. _____

Part 9 - Someone who is never mean and always friendly._____

Part 10- Someone who could act like the laziest person in the world -- never does anything. _____

Part 11- A boy or girl you would choose to be in charge when the teacher left the room. _____

Part 12- This person knows all the answers and usually works alone. _____

SECTION II

A. Which part or parts would you like to play best? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

B. Which part or parts do you think you could play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

C. Which part or parts do you think the teacher might ask you to play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

D. Which part or parts do you think most of the other kids would ask you to play? (Write number or numbers on line here.)_____

* Appreciation is expressed to the Educational Testing Service and California Department of Education for permission to reprint this scale.

APPENDIX G

SOCIAL HISTORY OUTLINE

I. IDENTIFYING INFORMATION:

A. Name, age, race, religion, sex, national extraction

B. Description: Height, weight, features, build

C. Appearance:

II. SOURCES OF INFORMATION (Informant):

A. Who seen (Description, attitude, etc.)

B. Why seen (The relationship, e.g., client has lived with father for past 10 years)

C. Records consulted (SSE, school, court, hospital, etc.)

III. REFERRAL:

A. Source (who?--self, relative, church, agency, school, police, court, etc.)

B. Cause or Reason (Why?--what is problem?--attitude to problem?)

IV. FAMILY BACKGROUND:

A. Constellation and client's place in it,

1. Father: (Description, age, where born, siblings, where living, with them, education, occupation, health-medical and mental, religion, attitude, relationship toward the client--now and in early life, child training-discipline)

2. Mother: (Same information as under Father)

3. Siblings: (Same information as under Father)

V. PERSONALITY OF CHILD:

Developmental, personal habits, religion, type of character, where he lives and with whom?

Kind of person? Gregarious, isolate, follower, leader, modest, show-off, aggressive, timid, calm, hyperactive, responsible, or happy-go-lucky, interests, hoppies, leisure time, pets, any marked change in conduct or habits, interests or attitudes upon approaching adolescence, girl-friends--older or younger, approved or disapproved socially, strong attachment to boys, interest in religion, ambitions, run away from home, reaction to authority, fights, anything outstanding, behavior problems, habits, sexual adjustment. . .

VI. HEALTH AND MEDICAL: (General health record throughout life--ever hospitalized for either physical or mental condition; any accidents or injuries? Reaction towards any accident or injury--by self--by members of family--how adjusted)

VII. EDUCATION:

A. Achievement (what grade attained--completed--honors?)

B. Adjustment (to teachers, students--failures, special promotions, when left--why, special interests, aptitudes, difficulties)

C. Psychological tests

VIII. DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION:

A. Family generalizations

B. Impressions about the child and his problems on the basis of information given by the informant.

C. Recommendations.